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One-hundred and fifty-one articles, dating from 1952 to 1964, comprise this third volume of selected articles from "Indian Education," a semi-MONTHLY FIELD LETTER PUBLISHED BY THE Bureau of Indian Affairs. The articles cover a wide range of elements affecting Indian educational attainment, such as cultural factors in Indian education, educational philosophy for Indian schools, program responsibility, research in Indian education, upgrading Indian education, designs for quality teaching, teaching English to Indian students, guidance for Indian students, summer programs for Indian students, adult education programs, inservice education programs, and goals for the future of Indian education. (DK)

**EDUCATION
FOR CROSS-CULTURAL
ENRICHMENT**

THOMPSON

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**UNITED STATES
DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR
BUREAU OF INDIAN AFFAIRS**

**UNITED STATES
DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR**

Stewart L. Udall, Secretary

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Hildegard Thompson, Chief

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EDUCATION

FOR CROSS-CULTURAL
ENRICHMENT

SELECTED ARTICLES FROM INDIAN EDUCATION 1952-64

by HILDEGARD THOMPSON

Chief, Branch of Education, and associates

1964

UNITED STATES
DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR
BUREAU OF INDIAN AFFAIRS
BRANCH OF EDUCATION

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PREFACE

In 1936 the Chief of the Branch of Education, Willard W. Beatty, began publishing a semimonthly field letter, "Indian Education," for the personnel of the Branch. His aim was to present to all members of the educational staff concise and clear-cut statements of the philosophy, policy, and preferred procedures of Indian education. This is still the aim of "Indian Education." Because of the increased rate of change taking place in the world today, the need to keep abreast is greater than it was in 1936.

Education for Cross-Cultural Enrichment is the third volume of selected articles from "Indian Education" to be published. The first, **Education for Action**, contained the best articles from 1936-1943. The second, **Education for Cultural Change**, contained articles written from 1944 through 1951 to assist Bureau schools to present an educational program aimed at easing Indians' transition from reservation life to non-Indian community life.

A review of the contents of "Indian Education" since 1951 reveals an emphasis on the need to educate for life in a rapidly changing world. The articles selected for this third volume were written to help Bureau schools provide educational programs to prepare Indians to be effective members of their communities and to contribute to our national cultural heritage. The 151 articles will be a record of the steps which the Branch of Education has taken since 1951 to meet the educational demands of this day and age.

Since the articles in this volume were published over a 13-year period, the statistics apply to the years in which the articles appeared in "Indian Education" and should not be interpreted as being valid in 1964. For example, on page 12, the number of schools and the enrollment figures are 1960 statistics.

Hildegard Thompson
Chief, Branch of Education

June 1, 1964

GREETINGS TO CHILDREN EVERYWHERE FROM TODAY'S INDIAN CHILDREN

We are many

We have many brothers and sisters.
There are about 140,000 of us
from 6 to 18 years old.
We are citizens of the U.S.A.

We live in many places

We live in Florida.
We live in Alaska.
We live in Oregon. North Carolina.
Montana. Idaho. Arizona.
Mississippi. Wisconsin.
We live in all States.
We do not all live alike.
Some of us live in rural areas.
Some of us live in towns.
Some of us live in big cities.
Some of us live on reservations.
Some of us live in hogans.
Some of us live in wickiups.
Some of us live in tents.
Some of us live in houses.

The people

We are Cherokees.
We are Chippewas.
We are Blackfeet.
We are Apaches.
We are Navajos. Pawnees. Sioux.
Cheyennes. Eskimos.
We are many people.

We are many religions

Some of us go to church.
Some of us do not go to church.
Some of us keep our Indian
religion.

We love our parents

Some of our parents speak
English. Some do not.
Some of our parents are very
poor. Some are not poor.
Our parents have many worries.
We love our parents. They are
good to us.

We like many things

We like soft voices.

We like our relatives.
We like the drum.
We like to sing.
We like to do Indian dances.
We like rain.
We like the wind.
We like fire at night.
We like horses.
We like cattle.
We like the deer.
The wild turkey.
Corn. Squash. Beans.

We love

Freedom.
Nature.
Beauty.
Our country.

The work of the people

Some are farmers.
Some are laborers.
Some are mechanics.
Some are nurses.
Some do not have any job.
Many of our people are
uneducated.

We go to school

We go to public schools.
We go to Government schools.
We go to mission schools.
We go to day schools.
We go to boarding schools.
Some of us finish high school.
Some of us go to college.
A few of us do not go to school.
There is much for us to learn.

We want many friends

We want to know you better.
We want you to know about us.
We want to learn from you.
We want you to learn from us.
Maybe we will live in your
neighborhood.
Maybe you will visit us.
We want to have many friends.
Let us get acquainted.

CULTURAL FACTORS IN INDIAN EDUCATION

1. EDUCATING INDIANS IN 1963

WE START EARLY in this new year with a brief explanation of the Bureau's historical and present-day responsibility for the education of Indians, since its function as a Federal agency engaged in education is rather unique. A word of caution, however, is in order. Brevity sometimes results in oversimplification which in turn leads to incorrect impressions. This danger is ever present in a discussion of a subject as complex as Indian affairs. It is hoped, therefore, that this background sketch will lead readers to a further study on their own for a better understanding of present-day Indians, their history, their problems, and their aspirations.

The Bureau of Indian Affairs, while charged with the legal responsibility for the management and protection of Indian property, also carries the responsibility for developing Indian self-sufficiency to the end that Indians learn to manage their own affairs. Thus education becomes importantly and intimately related to all Bureau programs and activities whether they pertain to property management, economic development, money management, health, sanitation, or civic affairs. The fact that over two-thirds of the Bureau's annual budget goes into educational programs indicates the relatedness of education to everything the Bureau does.

In its educational activities, the Bureau has worked consistently and effectively toward preparing Indians to receive their educational services, like other citizens, in the public school systems of the respective States where they reside, and at the same time it

helps States, as necessary, to assume responsibility for the education of their Indian citizens. Development of the readiness required on the part of both Indians and States is a complex process, usually misunderstood and often erroneously confused with the problems of desegregation elsewhere in the country. The problem is not one of desegregation as that term is usually understood; it is rather one of closing a cultural and language gap on the part of the Indian, and at the same time overcoming the fiscal problems growing out of the tax-exempt status of Indian lands that confront State governments.

These complex problems have been resolved in several States to the point that all Indians in those States are educated in the public schools. In other States, the Bureau to carry out its readiness responsibility still provides educational programs to meet the special needs of Indians. It is hoped that readers will find out more about the economic and educational status of the Indians of their respective States.

Historically, all Indian groups carefully educated and inducted their youth into the work and culture of the group. The educational process, however, was carried out by parents and grandparents and not through a formally organized institution, the school. The school, like individual land ownership, was a concept foreign to Indian life. Education through an institutionalized system of schools was, therefore, a transplant into Indian culture. Some individual Indians accepted education from their earliest contacts with it, and several such Indians were highly educated. It took time, often much time,

EDUCATION FOR CROSS-CULTURAL ENRICHMENT

however, for the school as a transplant into Indian life to take full root with the total group. As can be expected, education caught on because of earlier contacts with it first among groups along the Eastern Coast and later moving westward with Eastern groups who were removed to Indian territories. Early missionaries deserve great credit for giving Indians their first taste of education and for following them westward to start schools, often at the expense of great personal danger and hardship.

By the time the Five Civilized Tribes were removed to what was then Oklahoma Territory they had fully accepted the school as an institution of great value to their culture. In fact, the first public-supported school system in the area, now the State of Oklahoma, was established by the Five Civilized Indian Tribes.

While education has been a part of the life of some groups for several generations; by comparison, for other groups it has been accepted only recently. To understand, for example, why the Navajos, the Apaches, the Northern Cheyenne, the Sioux, and the Florida Seminoles, as groups, resisted education so long requires an understanding of the background and the history of each group. During the last decade or two, these groups too have realized the importance of education to their way of life and have demanded schools faster than it has been possible to supply them. This late start leaves these groups with a tremendous educational gap to be closed to bring them into the 20th century. In some groups, today's children are the first generation in school. It is with these groups that the Bureau is concentrating its energies to prepare them to receive, and to help the States prepare to give them, the educational services provided for all other citizens.

This preparation is fraught with problems and social dangers too complex to discuss in this brief statement. Not only do most of these Indians have the problem of learning a new language, English; but at the same time they are learning new ways of living,

ways most often quite foreign to their Indian life. Moving from a barter system to a wage system, for example, means learning new values related to money management; accepting a wage economy in lieu of a subsistence agriculture means learning newer habits related to time such as punctuality, newer food habits, newer safety habits, and an understanding of employer-employee relations. How to accept and profit from the material aspects of a changing economy without losing the more enduring values of Indian life such as unselfishness, serenity, a high regard for the spiritual aspects of life, love of beauty, love of nature, cooperativeness, and a deep respect for elders—to mention a few—become problems of great concern for Indian people and for those who try to assist them on their way.

The Bureau assists Indians with direct educational services when the problem is primarily one of overcoming serious educational deficiencies. In this connection, the Bureau operates 263 Federal schools, enrolling over 42,000 pupils, primarily in the Southwest, the Dakotas, and Alaska; provides scholarship programs for eligible college-bound youth; conducts summer work and educational programs for over 12,000 Indian youth; and makes vocational training programs available for eligible adult Indians who wish to acquire trade skills or upgrade the skills they have.

By comparison, twice as many Indian children living on or near Indian reservations attend public schools as attend federally operated schools. Additionally, hundreds of Indian children whose parents have moved away from their home reservations attend public schools, unidentified as Indians.

Statistics Concerning Indian Education gives more detail about schools, enrollments, grades, tribes, etc. This publication can be made available upon request to individuals interested in learning more about Bureau schools. With this sketchy review, it is hoped that the reader has acquired a feeling for the complexity of the problems involved in the

education of some of today's Indians, and is now prepared to struggle in spirit along with those who are charged with helping Indian people realize their aspirations.

Some of the newer learnings uneducated Indians need to acquire to function in today's world are:

1. Learning English as a second language
2. Learning new job skills
3. Learning new ways to improve and protect their health
4. Learning the social skills of modern life
5. Learning newer civic and political responsibilities
6. Learning newer family responsibilities
7. Learning newer ways of maintaining order
8. Learning how to use the services of the larger society.

All of these newer learnings should be developed in ways that will enhance Indian self-esteem, self-confidence, and pride in Indian heritage. Indian life has contributed in the past, and continues to contribute, much to American culture. This outlines in general terms the educational and cultural gap to be closed to prepare uneducated or under-educated Indians for 20th-century living.

2. CULTURAL FACTORS IN SOCIAL ADJUSTMENT

WHY IS IT that many Indian Americans are not fitting into the life of this country? The chances to make a go of it, on the surface of things at least, are just as good for the Indian American as for any other; yet we know persons who have come to this country from foreign lands with little if any formal education, often without the ability to speak a word of English, without friends or even acquaintances, and who "make good." You and I can call them out by name in every community.

Why can't more of the first Americans do the same thing? You will recall William Knudson, a top executive in General Motors,

who during World War II was appointed Lieutenant General by the President of the United States to insure that American industry produced at its highest levels. Knudson came to this country as a boy; and according to newspaper accounts of his life, he had gone only through the fourth grade. Ralph Bunche, Negro American, rose from extremely poor family conditions to become one of the world's outstanding statesmen. You can think of hundreds of other examples.

A chance for schooling has been open for Indian Americans since earliest colonial times. Harvard made special arrangements for them. Dartmouth to this day will admit them tuition free.

There must be some reasons other than racial discrimination, poverty, friendlessness, lack of formal education, and inability to speak the English language why individuals of Indian descent are not rising to the opportunities everywhere before them in this great country of ours.

Schools, for example, right this very hour, are available from the elementary through the high school grades absolutely free for every Indian boy and girl. Until recently, this was not true for the Navajos of the Southwest but thanks to the Commissioner's efforts this condition, in general, has been corrected. Yet there are thousands of Indian children who are not taking full advantage of this great opportunity: poor attendance, late enrollments, and high percentage of dropouts even before finishing the eighth grade if the child reaches the State age limit. Too, many excellent chances to use land and to take and keep jobs are daily allowed to go by.

Why must this be so? "Why?" one keeps asking himself. I submit to you that a part of the answer is to be found in the difference between our present-day American way of life and the Indian way of life. This is where the cultural factors in social adjustment come into our consideration.

At the time of Columbus' discovery of this part of the world, which was only 464 years

ago, there were, according to the findings of ethnologists and archeologists, some 200 to 300 Indians social units or tribal systems, societies if you please, that were already fixed ways of life, centuries old, going back ten to twenty thousand years perhaps. Over that chain of generations before 1492 and since, the peoples of these Indian tribes each created for themselves a system of living that worked, else they would have perished long ago. Since 1620, the original occupants of this land have been slowly but certainly and completely engulfed in a totally different way of life. I refer to that date as a benchmark for social change because about that time there were initiated important parts of our American way of life; incidentally some punster remarked that the Pilgrims on reaching the shores of this country fell first upon their knees and then upon the aborigines.

As I look around me,* I would guess that each of us has found a meaningful place in this latter so-called "American way of life." But if it is different, what makes it different from Indian ways? It is this difference that I think I see in the two ways of living that I want to present to you. It may help to explain some of the situations that trouble us in dealing with many of our so-called Indian problems. You might add to what I say and even refashion some of your own concepts as working tools for figuring out what the people are up against and how we might better help them to find workable answers.

A doctor, at a medical conference that I attended, made this statement which applies with equal force in our case where we are trying to correct social ills. "It is axiomatic that the first step in the cure of any disease is the establishment of a correct diagnosis." We must find out exactly what is wrong in a given situation before we can begin intelligently to figure out what needs to be done to help make things better.

We must be sure to get at the necessary facts. The things that cause the trouble are

there. They will not disappear just because we do not see them or do not want to see them. As Aldous Huxley once remarked, "Facts do not cease to exist because they are ignored." The engineer who builds an irrigation ditch must know about the law of gravity. This is a fact he must reckon with. Water will not run uphill no matter how good otherwise may be the ditches he constructs. So it is with us as applied social scientists working in the area of social change: we must get at the necessary facts else, figuratively, we will be merely building costly ditches in the vain hope that water will somehow run uphill.

The most important facts that we must take into account are to be found in the cultural differences between the American way of life and the several Indian systems of living.

Here are what I believe to be the four most important differences in the way that the attitudes and outlooks of the individuals are affected:

1. In the American way of life, those of us who are carried along in its social stream are future-oriented. We think in terms of what is ahead. In contrast, those whose lives are governed by the values of the Indian life are oriented to the present; they are prone to live in the present—the "exultation of the now." The non-Indian life is one of "conquest over nature" as against the Indian way of "harmony in nature." Another way of comparing them is to describe the former as existing in a state of anticipation, while the latter finds nothing to look forward to and feels that the essence of living is to be found in the present timelessness.
2. Time, in the sense of measuring duration by clocks and days-of-the-week calendars as we do, is not important to the person caught in the Indian way of life.
3. Saving as a means to achieve economic development has not been a part of the economic life of the Indian in his nomadic state where he lived largely by hunting and food gathering (direct appropriation).

*An Address delivered to the Northern Montana Work Conference on Indian Education, November 27, 1956

CULTURAL FACTORS IN INDIAN EDUCATION

4. Habituation to hard work, including drudgery for over a period of years, if necessary to earn a living, was not in the Indian system particularly for the men. If we will stop to analyze our own situation, we may see how important these four parts of our daily living are to us.

Future-oriented—we are seldom satisfied with the present. We are constantly lifting our sights into the future and when a given point in time in the future becomes the present we discard it and again refocus our interests on another point in the future. How often we look at our watches, not to see what time it is, but to check to see what time it isn't yet! Ours is a life of anticipation where we hope, by our efforts today, to live better tomorrow.

Time—we have to be time-conscious. The strength of our Nation depends upon it. Ours is an economy in which the division of labor is highly refined. In every community there are all kinds of things to be done; no one person could possibly learn how to do even a small part of them. All these many skills in millions of different persons can be used to the best advantage of everyone else only if they are coordinated in production by a clock and a calendar. We can get the most out of our lives only by scheduling them in terms of when to go to work, when to go to church, when to go out and have fun, etc.

Saving—we do none of it in the sense that a miser hoards money but rather in developing human opportunities. We create wealth with our physical and mental efforts; but at the same time we try to keep from using it all up. We keep back a part of it and use it as tools to develop more things. College buildings are an example of this kind of saving; so are our highways, factories, railroads, and airlines which give jobs and goods and services to millions of people. There must be savings in this positive sense if we are to continue as a healthy and strong community of Americans.

Work—each is expected to do his part in earning a living. Men, especially, are consid-

ered to be the breadwinners of the family unit, even if this means that the man must work day after day, year after year, as a barber, a banker, a lawyer, a doctor, a farmer, a railroad section hand, or a ditchdigger to support himself and his dependents.

Through our way of looking at life in our American culture, that is by constantly trying to make the future better, we learn to live by time schedules; we are made conscious of the need to save; and we are habituated to work of any nature as long as it is an honorable way of earning a living. **Time, saving, and work**—as individuals, as communities, or even as a Nation, we cannot, without disastrous consequences disregard any one of them for very long. We who are fortunate to have jobs, if we want to keep them, must show up for work on time all the time; we must give a good account of ourselves on the job by satisfactory performance; and then we must save our earnings so that we may pay our bills and have enough left over for our old age and for periods of illness when we are unable to work.

Time, saving, and work—we find them popping out at us in everything that we do; in our American way of life we cannot push any one of them aside for very long at a time without running into trouble, that is if we want to have a meaningful part in the life of Americans in these United States today.

Before I go further, I would like to call your attention to the fact that many Indian Americans, probably as many as half the 450,000 on tribal rolls, are like all the other Americans in regard to time, saving, and work as future-oriented individuals. The incidence of peptic ulcers amongst them is very likely no less than for the rest of the 170 million people in this country! This group of Indian Americans is not our concern; they are already rooted in our way of life. This complicates our analysis of the problem because we are likely to group all Indian Americans together as a racial or ethnic minority as we do Negro Americans, Japanese Americans, or Jewish Americans. And actually the

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social situation between the Indian Americans and the other minorities have little if anything in common from the standpoint of social adjustment.

Those of us of Indian descent, who have become habituated to the values of time, work, and saving in the American way of life are no longer culturally Indian in the sense of living by the values of old Indian life ways. Pardon a personal reference. My mother was a full-blood Sioux. She spoke very little English. Her formal schooling, as far as the three R's go, was equal to about the first grade. My father was a first-generation German. Mother, like all Indian women of the time, was reared to be gentle, to be content with tedious tasks, to do with little in the way of physical comforts, and to suffer long periods of isolation when required. She made an ideal mate for my hard-working father. My four brothers and I were taught from our first consciousness to become habituated to time, saving, and hard work. From a cultural point of view, while the sons all learned to talk Sioux and knew many Indian ways, in the essentials of making a living in this country, they were actually second generation German Americans!

We must ever keep in mind this important difference between, let us call them, acculturated Indian Americans and the unacculturated. (Acculturation means the process by which a person of a minority culture, like say the Indian way of life, takes on important elements such as time, saving, and work habits of the dominant culture like our American way of life.)

The acculturated Indian American is not our concern. Let us not forget, that in our time, he will as often be a full blood of any tribe or one like myself, who is only part-Indian. This individual has little in common with the unacculturated person. In this respect, the situation is not in the same order of a minority problem with that of the Negro or Jewish American where there is the barrier of social acceptance in too many circles in our country. A Negro may be ever so well ed-

ucated and have great wealth and yet there are places he will not be accepted socially; this situation tends to furnish all Negroes with a common cause. With persons of Indian descent this problem is not one they have to face; as a result, Indians, once they are habituated to time, work, and saving, and desire to integrate their lives with the American community, tend to disappear socially as Indians and become just other Americans.

Because we lose sight of this distinction between the acculturated and the unacculturated Indian Americans, on our college campuses, for example, we could be carried away with the notion that since there may be 20 or 30 students who happen to be enrolled with some tribe or have some Indian blood in their veins that they are in need of special attention because they are Indian. Actually in a cultural sense, which is the only basis for consideration, they are not any different from the rest of the members of the student body and should be approached in the same general manner.

My concern, and I am sure it is yours, is with the Indian-American community, family, and individual where outlook and attitudes are such that the persons who come from them are not challenged by the wonderful opportunities that are to be found everywhere in America. Now, at this point, I would like to suggest why I think the old ways of Indian life keep them in their state of mind where none are moved to see material opportunities, or where they see them, they feel no desire to take advantage of them.

It is helpful to see this side of the picture in order that we will have the patience and understanding necessary to aid in bringing about a healthy adjustment from their way of life to the one in which we find our material being.

The Indians, especially those of the plains who are our concern, lived in the present without any need to be apprehensive about the future. From a material standpoint, there really was no need for them to think in these terms. It is reliably estimated that not more

than one million people inhabited what is now the United States and Canada at the time Columbus discovered this part of the world. Nature's bounty did not require her modification for survival for this handful of humans. However, if this same area is to continue to support 200 million people at the highest level of living known to man, the society that populates it has to conquer nature and it must keep on doing it. In the growing of crops, farmers are harvesting varieties that were not in existence 10 years ago! Not so with the Indians in their societies over all these thousand of years that they were fashioning their way of life. They found they could have all that they required in the way of food, clothing, and shelter by living in harmony with nature. This meant that the essence of life was found **in being** and not **in becoming** something we are not today.

As a result of our sense of becoming, this business of being future-oriented, we have become an extremely time-conscious people, as I pointed out earlier. There are probably no others quite like us in this respect. We have taken the recurring four seasons of the year and divided the cycle into 365 days and each of these by a clock into 24 hours, then into minutes, and each of these further into 60 seconds. And in our atomic age, we find that even the segmentation of this phenomenon we call time in this degree is not small enough. In the language of the atomic scientist I read where they find a period of time called a jiffy useful in their calculations, a jiffy being the length of time it takes an object moving at the speed of light to travel a distance of one centimeter! When we think of light traveling at the rate of 186,000 miles per second and a centimeter as being a little less than one-half of an inch, we can get some slight hint of the refinement of time in our life today.

In contrast, the Sioux, and most other Plains Indian languages that I have investigated, do not include a word for time. Anthropologists report that language is the essence of culture. There are no people any-

where known to be without a language and the language always includes expressions to describe those things that are considered important to the people.

In our economic and other social relationships it becomes essential, as previously indicated, to schedule most of our activities in accordance with a commonly accepted system of timing if we as personalities are to attain a satisfying sense of achievement in the complex way of life in which we find ourselves today. In the economically simple life of the old Indian system there was never any need to coordinate the efforts of the group except in some general way around the natural objects such as the sun, moon, and the seasons.

Another side of this time-consciousness with us is the drive to save; not as much today as some of us would like to see, but it is there nonetheless. All of us remember many of Franklin's sayings like "An empty sack will not stand by itself" or "A penny saved is a penny earned." One of the main reasons we urge our youth to go to school is so they will increase their earning power which is, in a way, a form of saving. We have been taught to forego present use of our time and money for anticipated greater satisfactions at a later date. We are encouraged to put any extra income we have into bonds, insurance, property, and other types of savings for use in later years when our earning power might be lost.

But with the Indians there really was no reason to be constantly thinking of the future and how they will live then. Nature, as I said, was usually very kind. For our Plains Indians, the buffalo, which roamed the prairies by the millions, provided all that was essential to life in the way of clothing, shelter, and food. To them these necessities for living were nearly as free as the air we breathe. Air is necessary for life but we seldom think of saving it up for future use except in unusual conditions such as high-altitude flying, or to aid a very sick person with extra oxygen. The things essential to life in those

early times, like air to most of today, had no economic value and therefore there was no need to act in terms of saving for this purpose.

Saving, as we think of it, did not become a practice in the Plains Indian way of life because there was no need for this kind of behavior for survival purposes. It would have been foolish to save large quantities of buffalo meat and carry them long distances only to find that a supply of buffalo meat was there on the hoof at the journey's end merely for the taking. Saving as we think of it, if practiced, would serve only as an invitation to attack by one of the two hundred or more enemy tribes. Thus, it can be seen that the idea of saving as we know it had no basis for developing into the important value it has in our culture.

This brings us down to the habituation to hard work. Sociologists explain that this is an inheritance of Western European origin. The forefathers of the immigrants to this country from Europe were taught how to work. They say that this came about during the period of serfdom, when whole families for generations toiled at hard, tedious, backbreaking tasks in the manors of the lords during the Middle Ages. There developed a pride in work for work's sake. It is one of the great strengths of the American people, and at times, I am fearful we are letting it slip away from us as one of our fine values. (Maybe the do-it-yourself fad is an unconscious effort to resurrect it.)

We hear more and more of the shorter work-week and fewer hours per work-day. We know about fringe benefits, coffee breaks, and the like. There is a place for all these in our economy, perhaps. But what is it doing to the old drive to get a good job done, the driving desire to do the very best we possible know how to do with everything to which we set our hand and mind.

In this connection, I am often reminded of the struggles in the early life of Booker T. Washington, the great Negro-American educator. In the story of his life, he tells how he

set out for Hampton, Virginia, as a penniless, friendless boy to see if he would be accepted at Hampton Institute. Before his arrival at the school he had learned that the lady in charge was a New Englander. He said he knew that this head-mistress would be impressed only with a display of work that showed the person was putting his whole heart into it. When he finally arrived at the school 1,000 miles from home, ragged and dirty, this lady told him she had no time to talk to him then, but that while he waited to be interviewed he could busy himself by cleaning the reception room in the school building. He recalls how he moved the furniture around and swept under every piece and the entire floor three times and how he left the furniture spotless after dusting it five times. This Negro boy, taught by his wonderful mother the art of hard work, did not ask how much he was going to get; he had a job to do and he went at it as if it were the most important in the entire world. And, of course, for him it was. He was admitted to Hampton Institute on his demonstrated ability to do hard work and do it well.

There was the day so the story goes, when after a long hard week in the field he walked or rode by wagon to the country church and joined lustily in singing, "Work for the Night Is Coming." And now, what do we do? We ride to church in cars with automatic transmissions, power steering, and self-opening doors, and listen to a hired choir sing "Art Thou Weary, Art Thou Languid, Art Thou Sore Distressed?" Just the same, work, work, work is still looked upon as a virtue. One of the finest compliments you can give a person is to say of him, "He is a hard worker and thoroughly dependable."

The Indian culture did not make similar provisions in its social system to develop like habits of work amongst the men of the plains tribes. It fell to the lot of women to do the tedious tasks such as the tanning of skins, the care of children, the preparation of food; the Indian women were the "hewers of wood and the carriers of water." In the Indian life

of that earlier day, the able-bodied men of the tribes could not be permitted the luxury of doing these jobs that came to be regarded as "women's work." They had an equally important role to perform. They had to keep themselves ever ready to guard their camps against the possible attack of enemy tribes and be prepared to yield up their lives if that supreme sacrifice was necessary to the accomplishment of the job. Theirs was the more rigorous task of hunting so that the people would have food, clothing, and shelter. If the men did otherwise, their people would either become slaves or perish.

Remember, all these things, this way of life where the **future, time, saving, and work** do not mean the same things as they do to you and me, were thousands of years in the making.

You and I have been fortunate enough to be habituated to time, saving, and work in a manner that fits us comfortably in this American way of life. But we must not mislead ourselves into believing that we, without a lot of outside help, had very much to do with whatever success we may have attained. Many minds, hands, and hearts, other than our own, have combined to mold us into what we are. Let no one think himself self-made. A man once walked up to Horace Greeley and after pounding himself pompously on the chest remarked, "I am a self-made man." To which Mr. Greeley replied, "Sir, I am glad to know that; it takes a terrible responsibility off the Almighty God!"

We are what we are largely because of the overall way of life into which we are born.

Some of us are less than one generation from the influences of this other way of life in which are absent those elements that make up the very heart of our American economic existence: time, saving, and work. Yet when one sits down and analyzes the situation, as I have attempted to do, the wonder of our time is not that social adjustment of Indian Americans has been slow but that so many have found it possible to fit into the American social system in so short a time.

I think we might have speeded up the acculturation process had we known in earlier times the knowledge made available to us by the social sciences in the past forty to fifty years. Had it been realized that a large part of the adjustment processes hinged on the development of concepts of time, work, and saving by the Indian people themselves, we would have been much further along by this time. These elements are not by their nature likely to create any great amount of emotional resistance if presented for consideration. To have them introduced in the culture need not have changed their manner of dress, the system of worship, the ways of recreation, or their language.

But what was done? Indian people were asked to give up their language, their ceremonials, their way of dressing, and other aspects of their way of life that had no sensible bearing on social adjustment. Had they been helped to understand the importance for the survival of their cherished way of life by the incorporation of concepts of time, saving, and work into the Indian system they might have saved much that is lost to all of us today.

It is not too late to help the Indian build anew on what yet remains. A deep inner spirituality that has come across the ages still burns in his breast, but dimly. It might again be rekindled and add its spark to the richness of our American life.

However, this is something that will not be brought about by you and me. It will be accomplished only to the degree that the unacculturated Indian Americans themselves see the conditions we see as being undesirable and want to do something about them. It is not enough that you and I see these conditions or poverty as problems; these folks must come to see them as problems that are their problems. Then, and then only, will they begin to search for solutions that will enable outsiders like ourselves to give effective help.

Society has been guilty of dreaming up plans to solve the Indian problem. Lately, we

have set ourselves up as experts and sought out specialists to develop a "best" plan. Now we are coming around to working with the people themselves. Ideally, the plans that evolve should come to be regarded as their own plans with which they will be willing to struggle at any cost to see them carried to completion. This must be the approach whether programs are sponsored by the Federal Government, the States, the churches, the tribal governments, or philanthropic organizations.

I'd like now to move from cultural factors to the social setting in which this change will be brought about. Again, let us remind ourselves that we are not talking about the many Indian Americans who are governed by time schedules, habits of work, and saving. I don't think we need to worry about any such type of person even though he or she may have less than a first-grade level of formal schooling. America is still in need of persons who are willing to work and do an outstanding job day after day.

To inculcate these cultural factors of time, saving, and work will be a difficult job in itself. However, the task is made the harder because in the areas where these folk live, mostly on Indian reservations:

1. The mechanization of agriculture has reduced the need for farm labor which gave work to many Indian people in times past.
2. At the same time, this same use of machinery has cut down the number of farms in operation but with more acres per farm, making modern farming and ranching a big-business operation. According to the Bureau of the Census, there have been a thousand fewer farms in North and South Dakota during each of the past five years. Where Indians with little experience in farming or ranching and handicapped with a lack of concern for time, saving, and work (three ingredients required in large doses by all members of a family in agriculture) did have a fighting chance to make a living from farming or ranching twenty-five years ago, this opening for their labor has almost closed to them. Agriculture as a business by which to make a living requires a capital investment of from thirty to fifty thousand dollars. This kind of operation calls for management ability, that even few experienced farmers possess, if the operator is not to go broke. The number of Indian families, even if they could be given loans large enough to start out in agriculture, with the experience required to make a go of it is extremely small compared to the total needing employment. And very likely, with the few who could survive in agriculture, they would prefer a salaried job rather than take the risks involved together with the long hours of hard work necessary to success in land use. Therefore, only a few will probably find land use an alternative as a means to make a living.
3. The Indian population is increasing so rapidly that in some areas it is expected to double within the next fifteen to twenty years.
4. Those who develop habits of time-consciousness, saving, and work leave the reservations, and this limits the number of examples and leaders to bring about the social change of the kind we feel is necessary. This tends to leave the old ways to go on unchanged, leaving the increasing number of younger people in proportion to older ones to follow in the same pattern of life that plagues their elders.
5. The Indian populations are in areas where the chance of bringing in industry is limited. The Commissioner of the Bureau of Indian Affairs is doing everything he can to encourage industry to come into or near the reservations, but with no success, thus far, in this north country. Real headway is being made in this regard in the Southwest. We can only hope that something will be worked out for this section of the country where freight rates, the weather, and the location all seem to be against us.

6. The population structure is out of balance by comparison with the rest of the population in the States. About 50 percent of the Indians are under 20 years of age; with the non-Indians only around 30 percent are under 20 years of age. Amongst Indians three adults, if they had jobs, would support seven others on an average. With non-Indians in this region one usually has a job and he supports one. This is speaking, generally, from the available population figures. It indicates a serious unemployment situation. The burden of support for a large part of the Indian population rests on a relatively few even if jobs could be developed.

There are several other factors that must be considered in arriving at workable solutions. I don't have the time here to present them but probably you will develop them in group meetings.

Easy answers are not likely. Nevertheless, the people are here, their numbers are increasing; long-range and permanent solutions must be found to correct the tragic conditions that plague them in too many places today.

potent factor in what it fails to teach. Large areas of living, familiar to and important to the teacher, may be completely lacking in the life of the child she faces in the schoolroom. In most cases, the teacher comes from a so-called middle class family while from two-thirds to all of her pupils come from families whose backgrounds differ from hers because of socio-economic, ethnic, and racial factors which may lead her to discredit the child's social behavior.

The child may come from a home where water is scarce and living conditions are not conducive to personal cleanliness, where he must walk in front of someone if he moves about at all, where he may wear his hat in the house and eat with his fingers from a common bowl. A lack of these social amenities may disturb the teacher greatly because of her own bringing up. She may lose sight of the fact that this same child may be able to leave his home stoically to remain with strange people with strange ways, to take inoculations without a whimper, to take care of his needs (as far as he is concerned) independently, to look after a small child entrusted to his care, to find his way around, and even earn some money for the family livelihood.

Not only is there a gap between home and school in many cases, but there is between different racial groups within the school and community, between church groups, and between families of the same group. The ambitious family may be looked upon with scorn by the one lacking in this respect, the white child may look down upon the child with a colored skin and this one, in turn, may devalue the worth of one whose skin is still darker. The child whose parent is an employee of the school may feel superior to the one who is not in this category, and the various church groups may consider those who believe differently strange or queer.

Although all these and other patterns of life affect a child when he enters school, fortunate is the teacher who faces a cosmopolitan group because in such case she can plan

3. SOCIAL BACKGROUND OF THE BILINGUAL CHILD

A CHILD from a non-English-speaking home comes to school not only with a different vocabulary but also with a cultural background dissimilar to that of the English-speaking child. It is easy not only to disregard that background but actually to disrespect it. The same situation may affect the child from any such home. His attitude toward school and the people there may be one of antagonism or indifference. The family plays an important role in determining social behaviors long before a child enters school. It influences by what it teaches, directly and indirectly, consciously and unconsciously—by words, by deeds, by facial expressions, and by tone of voice. It is also a

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consciously and naturally to provide the social learnings a child needs to have to get along with others in an increasingly diverse society such as ours. With a variety of experiences which a child brings to school, with freedom and guidance to create new situations, to seize upon every opportunity to use meaningful circumstances which naturally arise, the school can supplement what the family teaches, can widen the range of social learnings, and help to free a child from prejudices and limitations placed upon him by the home and other influencing institutions.

A child also brings to school with him matters which concern the home and family. Sometimes a child can keep these in the background but they still leave their mark. Then, too, there are happy memories of play and family relationships which the school may ignore. Often superstitions and taboos cause great conflict if unknown to the teacher. Stories told to the child may involve the names of animals which should not be mentioned during certain seasons of the year, if at all. Calling a child the name of a particular animal or asking him to dramatize it may throw him into a state of fear.

In addition to this a child may come from a home where he has complete freedom, or from one where he is nagged and punished for the slightest infraction. Before he can adjust to whatever the school requires he may be frightened into a speechless condition. Freeing him to express himself may require weeks. In the meantime, he must not be labeled stupid, stubborn, or unresponsive.

Then it seems evident that the school should make it its responsibility to ascertain what the child has learned at home, what limitations exist, what cultural patterns affect him—in fact, everything that can be found out about the pupil in charge. Frequent conferences with parents will disclose the type and amount of food eaten, hours of sleep and rest, play activities, adult and child association, speech habits, and other forces which tend to make a child what he is. Until a feeling of "oneness" with the school is ex-

perienced, the child cannot easily make a second language real and vital in his life. One makes genuine progress only when one needs and wants to learn the language of another group of people.

Punishing a child for speaking his own language or forbidding its use at school not only proves futile but approaches the problem from an unpsychological and unsound angle. It builds up resentment and may lead to subterfuge.

When a child learns to get along with others, to make himself acceptable to the group, to become a part of his new world, and when he has enough genuine experiences which appeal to him and provide natural reasons for self-expression, then he will learn quickly and effectively a second language.

4. FROM WHENCE THEY COME

ALL SCHOOL EMPLOYEES should read this article for the implications related to their respective responsibilities. The comments in parentheses point out some of these implications.

Though years have passed and times have changed since I was an Indian child attending a boarding school, I can understand a great deal of what passes through the minds of Indian students when the mention of boarding school is made. (Indian employees can bring understanding of student needs to a program.)

Students from many, many tribes each year apply to one or another of the Bureau boarding schools. Hundreds of these boys and girls never having been away from home before are unaware of the new experiences which lie ahead. They have been accustomed to having things done for them by their parents or close relatives. Many of these students have had no training toward becoming independent, and this tends to be one of the problems which requires the greatest patience and skill in handling when they reach

the boarding school. It takes time to adjust to these entirely new "set-ups." The majority of these students do not have modern facilities in their homes and do not realize that certain measures must be taken in order to keep the modern living quarters clean and sanitary. (Indian students should be taught as carefully in this area as they are taught mathematics. How do you teach the students in your school to respect and care for their surroundings in their new environment?)

The meals furnished in the Bureau schools are certainly of higher quality and far better balanced than the students receive at home, yet they must adjust to this new experience. (This has a relationship to student morale. How do you teach students to enjoy new foods?)

The students of high school age tend to be the most unsettled group because at this age they are fighting a great battle within themselves. They are trying to become independent. Much of their resentment in having been corrected on some minor mistake is reflected in an urge to assert their independence, yet their fears at this stage are too compelling to ignore. (There are deep guidance implications here.)

Many Indian students still hold on to many of their tribal beliefs and customs. No matter how far into non-Indian culture we Indians may go, we still will treasure and respect the art, beliefs, and customs of our forefathers. Though at one time our forefathers were restless and without a home, if they had not been brave enough to challenge the unforeseen we would not be where we are today. I am not sorry for the adjustments we have to make today because with each one we are giving ourselves another "break." From here on it seems to be a personal matter as to whether or not we are acceptable to our peers. We are no longer considered as tribes but are judged as individuals. The Bureau schools are doing a good job and there should be no reason for the average Indian boy or girl not getting an education. I feel certain that none of us would prefer the sod

house, teepee, or the one-room shack to the modern homes available today. Anything worthwhile requires a certain amount of patience and hard work, and it takes a person with character and willingness to apply himself to amount to anything. (Indian aspirations are changing.)

5. WHAT PRICE RAPID CHANGE?

ALL OF US feel the impact of a world in transition. Transition connotes change, movement, passage from goals achieved to goals yet unachieved; therefore, movement in direction. By this definition, education has always been in transition and always will be because education must change as people and societies change. Applying this meaning of transition: (a) education has and is changing in Indian societies; (b) education is practically in upheaval in many of the underdeveloped countries of the world; and (c) education must now change rapidly in keeping with the rapid pace of change in our society.

Early Indian Education

Let us first examine the education transition that has occurred in Indian societies and extract the lessons that have implications for us today. Indian groups from primitive times to more recent times have educated carefully their youth. They had no formal system of education carried on in an institution. Parents, grandparents, and designated leaders of the group had teaching responsibilities. The boys were taught the understandings, the skills, and the responsibilities they had to carry to function as male members of the society. Girls were taught their roles. Each young person was very carefully taught to formulate his image of self; to see himself in relationship to his group. Do not boys and girls today need to be taught to formulate images of selves and to see themselves in relationship to others?

And how did parents, grandparents, and leaders teach? The methods used is

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fundamental to all teaching. Youth were taught by participating in the activities of the groups. In keeping with his age and maturity, each member actually took part in the work, the ceremonies, and the social life of the group. This participation was laid out in sequence to be achieved at certain periods of his development. In other words, achievable standards were set, and each person was expected to meet them. Today's youth, too, must have realistic standards and must be expected to meet them.

Now what were the outcomes of this educative process which helped the individual formulate an image of self, expected him to measure up to established standards, and which taught him through the method of involvement?

As new ideas came to the group from the outside or as conditions influenced ideas, changes if accepted at all were integrated in the life and thinking of the entire group. The parents, the grandparents, the leaders, as well as the youth accepted and used the new. It became a part of the thinking and life of the total group, not just the leaders, not just the children. This slowed down change and whatever was accepted thus became a part of tradition to be passed on to youth in the future. This process minimized conflicts, promoted harmony, and enhanced the respect which the individual had for himself and for his elders.

Organized Schools in Indian Societies

In the 15th century, Europeans began settling this continent bringing with them their own ideas, traditions, and institutions. By this time in Western cultures, education of youth was a cooperative responsibility. There was a division of responsibility between the home and an institution called the school, and between the home and the church; but there was a close partnership in what the three taught. The home kept close watch over what the schools taught and the church kept a watch over both the school and the home. Education was traditionally oriented and the system guarded against any non-

acceptable ideas or unwanted changes. As with Indian societies, the changes which came were slow enough to be absorbed without causing undue stress on the members of the group.

Education as an organized institution was introduced to Indian societies by the early settlers. Now let us see what effects the introduction of the school as an institution had on Indian groups.

Although the school in Western culture was in close harmony with the home in what it taught, when it was established in Indian groups it was a transplant. It had no roots in Indian life; in fact, most of what it taught was in conflict with Indian life. This institution created gaps between the thinking of the youth and the thinking of the elders. The changes it brought about came too fast to be understood and socially digested by Indian groups. Because of this, Indians in the beginning were slow to accept schools and what was taught in them.

Non-Indians who, from their point of view, were generously sharing their culture with Indian groups became frustrated when Indians did not quickly give up their own traditions and wholeheartedly embrace traditions of non-Indian society.

The older Indian people were blamed for holding back the youth; therefore, to solve the problem, youth should be educated apart from their families. In this way, it was foolishly believed, the education of Indian people could be achieved in one generation. Boarding schools were established for the purpose of remaking Indian youth into the image of the non-Indian, but that did not happen. What did happen was that in trying to bring about rapid change, great damage was done to the very people who were supposed to benefit from the change. The Indian image of self was destroyed and Indian youth, generally speaking, found it difficult to function successfully in either society. Gaps developed between the home and the school and between youth and their parents. The elders were fearful when they saw the youth

losing the traditions of their own society and the school failed to recognize these fears and, as a consequence, distrusted the elders. Parental control over children was weakened and respect of youth for all authority suffered. Often self-respect was sacrificed.

These were the damages that resulted from separating youth from their families. Anything that separates a child from his family for lengthy periods of time tends to cause gaps between the generations. To avoid those dangers, many Indians kept their children at home.

By the beginning of the 1930's there was enough awareness of the dangers inherent in this approach that attempts were made to get closer coordination between the Indian home and school by involving parents and Indian elders in the affairs of the school. Practices changed from taking children away to school for long periods to bringing the school geographically closer to the home. Attempts were made to develop a partnership between home and school. This has not always been easy. Geographical factors often interfere, but most Indian children now attend school within their home environment.

Dangers Inherent in Rapid Change

Education in the non-Indian society has changed greatly from the days of the one-room school that was the center of learning and of the social life of the community. School consolidation has meant that children often are educated away from their immediate locality. Earning a living is no longer a cooperative family matter as it was in the days of the one-room school. Family life is now much more compartmentalized as we are in the process of becoming an urban society, and as a result of these changes the task of keeping the home and school in close partnership becomes more difficult. It is more difficult to get that parental involvement in school affairs so necessary to maintain local control of schools. Already rapid changes have undermined a great deal of the partnership between home and school. Greater changes are yet to come.

Since this is an age of rapid change, schools of necessity must become more future oriented if our country is to maintain a leadership role in the world. This means we must be ever alert to those dangers inherent in rapid change. Perhaps the greatest challenge of our age may be how to bring about rapid change and at the same time avoid or at least lessen its ill effects; how to find ways to bring about rapid change without destroying the bond between youth and their families and losing the tie that must exist between the home, the school, and the community. It is going to take sober thought to chart our rapid movement toward the future and great skill to miss the pitfalls of change that come rapidly.

6. CAN THE SCHOOL CHANGE THE WORLD?

EVERY SOCIETY, simple or complex, sets up ways to preserve itself. In our society we look to the school as one of the social agencies concerned primarily with passing on our basic values to each succeeding generation.

In our scheme of things the school cannot deliberately set out to remake society. Instead, it is expected to reflect the common core of values that give meaning to our way of life, and further, it is expected to function in harmony with its companion institutions. To protect our way of life, we have surrounded our school system with safeguards to prevent intolerable changes.

One such safeguard is the principle of local control upon which our educational system is grounded. We believe through the application of this principle we can keep schools near the people and thus protect the best interests of our way of life. We may disagree on how the principle operates but there is no disagreement on the importance of preserving the principle. The recent debate in Congress on Federal aid to education illustrates this point. No one came out for

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scrapping the principle of local control of schools; instead, all wanted the control kept in local hands. The disagreement stemmed from differences of opinion as to the effect of Federal aid on local control.

Safeguards, then, such as the principle of local school control keep the school functioning in line with the primary purposes our society expects of it: the conservation and transmission of the goals and values of our culture.

Now let us examine the responsibility of the school to the individual members of society. The school carries out its responsibility to individuals by providing the atmosphere in which each can develop to his fullest stature. It provides teachers to stimulate and to guide individuals to make the most of themselves. The school provides experiences (a curriculum) and challenges each individual to apply his intelligence in reworking the experiences until they become his. He is taught to recognize and to apply basic values to new situations; he is taught how to use knowledge and facts to think through his problems; he is assisted to develop his skills.

In the whole process the individual is the focal point of interest; the teacher and the curriculum are the instruments in his development and growth.

Although as we have said, the school does not set out deliberately to change society, it does set out to change individuals. Through teachers who stimulate and a curriculum which challenges, each individual is provided opportunities to develop, within the context of his culture, to his fullest capacity. Each individual nurtured by his culture grows, and therefore changes. As individuals change, so our way of life changes. In a sense, though indirectly, the school does produce change in society, yet the change is a by-product of the work of the school, not its deliberate aim. This is a satisfactory type of change, approved by those in control of the school and fostered by the other institutions in our way of life. This type of change, if it allows all institutions to keep in sufficient harmony

with one another, will not be excessively disturbing to the individual. He is conditioned to it; he expects it; he participates in producing the change; and his culture supports him and keeps in step with him as the change takes place. There will be no frightening gap between him and his culture because the change takes place within the cultural context, not outside it.

Let us now apply these concepts to the role of the school in educating Indian children. The school, as an institution, stands like a bridge between the Indian child and society. Which society? Does the school stand between the child and his Indian culture? Or does the school stand between the child and the major culture? Or does the school stand between the child and both cultures? I believe it is the latter.

Here again the child is the focal point. The school must provide for him the instruments that will help him develop to his fullest stature: the teacher to understand and to stimulate; the curriculum to challenge him to make the most of himself.

The process of making the most of himself for the Indian child is far more complex than for the non-Indian child. Let us analyze the process from the standpoint of the Indian child. The Indian child must understand the goals and demands of two cultures, not one. He must, with guidance, select the particular goals from each culture which will best serve him, and then he must make them his goals. He must recognize and understand the important values of both cultures, select and merge them into a personal system of values that will give satisfying design to his own life. This merging of two cultures produces far greater change in individuals than does adjustment to the demands of one culture. Neither does the change take place with the same cultural support. There is grave danger of getting too far away from the context of both cultures—of becoming lost between the two. There is danger of getting at odds and out of step with important facets of his own culture. He may become confused when two

cultures press in on him with conflicting demands, before he himself has had an opportunity to adequately reconcile to his own satisfaction the conflicts. For example, it is very easy for the home, deeply grounded in the native culture, and the school, deeply grounded in the dominant culture, to make conflicting demands of the child, and then to frustrate, confuse, and lose him.

This points up only a few of the complexities experienced by Indian children in the process of cultural transition. The process places great strain on the individual and a grave responsibility on the school.

The school must see to it that the Indian child does not become a lost personality between two cultures. The school must provide experiences that are meaningful to the Indian child; experiences that give him the broader understandings and the skills he will need to meet the demands of a modern world. In addition, and far more important, the school must provide the opportunities for each Indian child to select the basic values of his Indian culture and learn to apply them to new situations.

There are certain basic values common to both cultures. An Indian child in his own culture is taught honesty, responsibility, initiative, self-reliance, respect for property, etc. as they apply in his way of life. For example, in Navajo life it was never necessary to safeguard property through a system of locks on every hogan; and what greater responsibility could any child have than to have entrusted to his safekeeping the family's entire wealth in the flock he herded daily. We often speak as though the Indian culture carries no values of use in modern life; consequently, we act as though the school must see that he gives up all of his culture and takes on all of ours. Nothing could be further from the truth. Instead, we should help the Indian child search for the similar values in both cultures, to study, to compare, and to learn to apply them in new situations. We should not forget that we, too, can profit from a study and application of some of theulti-

mate values of Indian life. For example, our feverish life could profit from a dose or two of Indian tranquility. We could increase our sense of social responsibility and reduce our sins of selfishness if we took on more of the generosity which Indians have almost to a fault (again in terms of our standards).

I am confident if we emphasized more the bringing into balance of the ultimate and basic values common to both cultures and stressed less the adjustment of the Indian as though adjustment were a one-way street, both cultures would be strengthened.

The Indian child has every right to expect the same services from our educational institutions as other children expect: the right to the fullest development of his powers. This means a school that provides understanding teachers and a curriculum to challenge the intelligence of the Indian child; a school that gives each child the knowledge, facts, and skills he needs or will need to solve his problems; a school that will help each child recognize and apply the lasting values of Indian life to new situations. This is a tremendous task for the school. Nevertheless, unless the task is met, the school has not carried out its responsibility to help each Indian child make the most of himself.

7. CULTURAL EMPATHY

IF YOU, THE READER, are an educational employee, the chances are approximately even that you are non-Indian. If you are Indian, the chances are that you are working with an Indian group different from the tribe with which you yourself are affiliated. In all probability you are a high school graduate or a college graduate. It is almost certain that such conveniences as electricity, running water and indoor sanitary facilities, refrigerators, washers, electric irons, toasters, and other such appliances are common in your life. You have, in all probability, grown up in a home where books, magazines, and a daily newspaper also were taken for

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granted. Radios and television are a part of your daily life. Museums, art galleries, the theater are not uncommon to you.

You have traveled, some of you extensively, in this country and foreign countries. Jet planes, trains, and ships are not foreign to you. You have experienced the rush of crowded cities, and the relaxation of the peaceful countryside. You have shopped in huge department stores and supermarkets.

You belong to many groups: church groups; fraternal, professional, and business organizations; clubs and lodges. And you enjoy this great variety of associations and friendships, dispersed as they are.

You have struggled, no doubt, to get ahead. You have competed with others in scholastic activities and for jobs. You try to accumulate assets for future security. You provide for your immediate family and expect your relatives to provide for theirs. You understand the importance of stretching your wages from payday to payday, and attending to your debts takes high priority in the management of your affairs. You take pride in ownership and property, and increasing your acquisition of property holdings is among your goals. In all probability, you understand and use insurance to minimize the risks of costly illness, property damage, or loss.

English, for most of you, is your first language or you have acquired facility in English. Your horizons, therefore, are not necessarily limited to the spoken language of your associates. Your language gives you the key to the recorded experiences of all mankind.

This description, although far from complete, highlights some of the aspects of your life.

Now, take a look at the life of the Indian people with whom you work. Although the background of the many Indian groups varies greatly, certain similarities will apply to all groups. The following description highlights the aspects of Indian life that more or less apply to all.

The chances are that more than half of

the adults with whom you work have less than five years of schooling; some no schooling at all. For most, modern home conveniences such as refrigerators, toasters, washers, and the like are the exception rather than the rule. Electricity and running water are things wished for but not realities in most homes. Books, magazines, and daily newspapers are not common in the Indian homes of the groups with which you work. Radios may be common in some, but not all. Television is enjoyed and something desired, but for most still unattainable.

Experiences in museums, art galleries, and theaters are rare in Indian reservation life. Travel is generally limited to visits to the trading post, a nearby town, and attendance at sings and ceremonials. Shopping in supermarkets and city department stores and traveling by train or jet are uncommon.

There is little interest in accumulating assets beyond today's needs. Tomorrow will take care of itself.

Generosity toward relatives and friends is expected. Jobs are scarce. Wages from labor for those lucky to have regular jobs are not to be stretched from payday to payday for the benefit of the immediate family group. Instead, wages are to be used to help less fortunate relatives and friends. They, in turn, will help you when in need. Associations are not dispersed among a variety of groups. All associations, be they religious, social, or recreational, are interrelated and with the same close-knit groups. Status is acquired through generosity, not thrift; cooperation, not competition. There is no need to rush and hurry; life is good when one has food to share, friends to enjoy, and ceremonials to attend.

Resentment over the loss of traditional land holdings is always near the surface. Credit, insurance, and social security bear a shallow relationship to reservation life. A car, regardless of its condition, is a thing to be acquired, if possible, and used as long as it will run.

Wisdom is associated with age and elders are deeply respected. Children are cherished

and wanted regardless of numbers or family circumstances.' Group standards and mores guide and discipline individuals, and security comes from membership in the group. No one need stand alone; each is a part of the whole. Each knows his role in the group, and seeks not to outshine others in the performance of that role. Deep spiritual satisfaction comes from living up to group expectations.

English, if used, has been acquired as a second language. Communication is generally in the native Indian language. The heritage of the group is passed on through stories and legends, not the written word. The story-teller is the group's historian and is deeply respected, as is the guardian of the group's religion and customs. Indians identify themselves with their heritage and this identity brings a feeling of self-worth.

This description, although far from complete, highlights aspects of Indian reservation life.

You now have before you, although far from complete, two profiles: the profile of your own background and a profile of the major aspects of Indian background.

Your work reflects the attitudes, values, and the habits of your life. As you walk to work each day, your ancestors walk with you. Your personality is a composite of all of your experiences and you are a part of all that you have met.

The same holds true of the Indian children or adults with whom you work. Their attitudes, their values, their beliefs, and their habits are the result of their experiences. Their ancestors, too, walk with them wherever they go. They, too, are a part of all that they have met.

Two great heritages meet face to face as you and Indian people work together. Both heritages are characterized by enduring values. The values of each bring deep meaning to life.

In the meeting of these heritages, what is your role as an educator? Is it to change, destroy, or to replace Indian life? Let's think about it. Isn't it your responsibility to under-

stand Indian life, and, in turn, to develop Indian understanding of the way of life you represent? From mutual understanding, strength will emerge and change will occur. Isn't it your task to open up new sources of knowledge: to make available and accessible the recorded knowledge and experiences of mankind but to leave the choice of change to the Indians themselves?

Indians will choose from available sources that which they see as useful in their lives. The acceptance of newer and useful aspects of contemporary life will often require a change in attitude and thinking. Most likely, it will mean the development of new skills and a reinterpretation of values in relationship to the newer conditions Indians face. When the choices are made by the Indians themselves, new concepts will be properly related to old concepts and both integrated in such a way that they will become an accepted part of Indian thinking.

And, what is your role as an educator? You are the helper—your role is to assist individuals and groups to assess their problems, to supply them with information, and to help them develop the skills necessary to cope with their problems. You may help them understand the relationship of the new to the old so that they can accept necessary changes without sacrifice or damaging Indian individuality. Self-respect and respect of Indian heritage will not be lost, and cultural empathy will result from Indian—non-Indian associations.

8. TALENTS FOR TODAY'S WORLD

DURING THE YEARS the Indian child is in school he receives careful guidance and help as he moves toward adulthood. Especially during the four years in high school, he receives aid in preparing him to assume responsibility for his own actions and decisions. When he leaves school, he faces the future more or less on his own. And what

does the future hold for the many students just about to reach adulthood? The future promises to be the most exciting of all ages. For the first time in history, man stands daringly on the edge of the earth eager to explore the universe.

It is possible that some of us might like to stay or slow down the changes coming so rapidly, but it cannot be done. We face only one way—toward the future—and Indian youth today have more opportunities to help them face the future than they ever have had in their whole history.

What the Future Holds

Ten years ago most of us knew little about earth satellites. Today we know that several are orbiting the earth, some orbiting the sun, and that the moon has been reached by a man-made missile. Our *Tiros I* is photographing the earth with its cloud cover and is sending the photographs back to earth.

A new Government agency, the National Aeronautics and Space Administration, was established by the Congress less than two years ago. When this agency was established, Congress directed it to conduct activities, as may be required, to explore space; and further, that the activities be devoted to peaceful purposes for the benefit of mankind. The agency has laid out a 10-year program of space exploration and in the program there are plans to send a man into space and bring him back. According to the agency, Project Mercury will send a manned satellite to orbit the earth three times in four and one-half hours then return to earth—this they hope to accomplish in 1961.

Astronauts are in training now for that trip. No doubt, many of the students now in school will travel in space as a matter of course, just as we now think plane travel commonplace. Yes, we stand on the edge of space; the countdown has started and man will see things he has never dreamed of, and learn things no one can yet comprehend.

Special Talents Needed for the Future

What kind of men will it take to explore

the universe and use their knowledge for the betterment of mankind? It will take men of intelligence with great technical know-how; but above all, it will take men of high principles to channel this knowledge into peaceful purposes and to use it for the betterment of mankind. The students now in school must be those men and women with high principles, intelligence, and with great technical know-how.

When Marian Anderson, the great musical artist, sings so beautifully, "He Has the Whole World in His Hands," I always think of the talents He gives to each of us. He puts in our hands the special talents we are expected to use for our own betterment and the betterment of others. Some live up to the expectations and others misuse and waste their talents. He has Indians in His hands, too, and he has endowed them with their share of special talents to qualify them to take their place in the exciting present and future. Their Indian life has taught them many principles that can be applied in new ways to the changing world in which we all live. Out of the many qualities that Indian students bring from their Indian heritage, I have selected three talents which I would like very much to see nurtured in such a way that each student will consistently apply them throughout his life.

Talent: Respect for Nature—In the old Indian way, Indian people lived very close to nature. They observed it closely and had a deep respect for it; they lived in harmony with it, and accommodated themselves to it even though they did not always understand the natural world around them. Every day, through science, we are learning new things about the world in which we live. Many discoveries make it possible for us to live better, to have better health, and to enjoy more comforts and conveniences. We are relieved of much of the back-breaking toil and the grinding hardships of earlier ages. But we still need respect for nature. We need to be sure that we are using nature in ways that are of real and lasting benefit to mankind.

For example, we must find ways to use the atom for constructive, rather than destructive, purposes.

Talent: Respect for Rights of Others—In the old Indian society, the rights of the individual person were greatly respected and the group was reluctant to tell the individual what he must do. The remarkable thing was that the individual nearly always knew what he should do. His responsibility for the welfare of the group was so impressed upon him from an early age that he usually could be counted upon to do the right thing. Today, as never before, we need understanding upon the part of all people that, while individual rights are of the greatest importance, each person has a responsibility for the rights, the safety, and the well being of others too. Our talents are given to us not just for our own personal gain but to be used also to make the world a better place for everyone. When nations, too, learn to respect the rights of each other; when each nation carries out its great responsibility for the welfare of the human race without attempting to dictate to other nations, then the peoples of the world

will improve their trust in and respect for each other. Tension will ease, and harmony can be substituted for suspicion and strife.

Talent: Fortitude—The Indian was patient and brave; the name usually given to this talent is fortitude. He was willing to go through much hardship to try to live up to what he believed to be right. The world needs men who have the fortitude to live by their principles; who can be counted on to do the right thing regardless of their own special interests, and who will work toward solving the problems of this age for the betterment of all mankind.

No group comes better endowed with special talents than the Indian students in our schools: A deep respect for harmony; the worthy quality of fortitude; and the heritage from Indian life which accords great respect for the individual with full confidence that he knows and will act in the best interest of the group. And if these talents can be applied to world affairs—as they must be—what a definite and fundamental contribution Indian people can make, not only to this great country of ours but to the world.

2

EDUCATIONAL PHILOSOPHY FOR INDIAN SCHOOLS

1. HOW HIGH THE MOON?

YOU MUST WONDER why the topic "How High the Moon?" was chosen for this occasion.* Quite frankly, I didn't choose it. It was suggested by one who has a flair for putting ideas into unusual phraseology. Your chairman suggested "How High the Moon?" as a title for whatever ideas I wished to express, and, may I say, I have found it a most fascinating title around which to develop some of the ideas I would like to propose for your consideration.

In talking to you about "How High the Moon?" I'm going to talk about three moons. Most of what I say will be in the form of questions to be in keeping with the title which is a question: "How High the Moon?" Perhaps, I should change the title to "How High the Moons?" since I shall talk about three moons.

Mr. Ayers suggested this title before the Russian sputniks. Now that Russia has hit the moon squarely in the face you may think this title is outdated, because now we should know if the calculation of 240,000 miles to the moon is correct, since the distance has been traveled and can be measured and checked. Not only have the Russians hit the moon, but they have gone beyond the moon, and around the moon. They tell us they have taken a good look at the moon's backside, which I'm sure hasn't embarrassed the moon a bit—but how it has embarrassed us—a people who pride ourselves on progress, on achievement, and on being first—we have been outdistanced

by the space achievements of the Russians. But the distance to the moons I shall talk about must be measured by us, not Russia.

Twice, within a period of 40 years, our pride has received a shocking jolt. I remember how secure I used to feel about our naval superiority when I could look out over Manila Bay and see some of the battleships of our Pacific Fleet anchored there. And then came Pearl Harbor and a desperate four or five years of bloody struggle. Now we have received this second jolt; this time in the scientific field by the success of a society that waves the flag of Communism.

Is there something in our national mind that permits us to become too self-satisfied which in turn leads us to periods of complacency and blindness, and do we have to have severe shock treatment every so often to awaken us? Is there developing in our national mind a feeling of superiority that is growing out of proportion to reality? If this is true, this could well be the most serious problem with which we have to deal.

In the past, in the face of great dangers, we have been able to mobilize quickly all of our resources: our great wealth, our great industries, and our loyal people to overcome the difficulty.

But, if we do have a national feeling of superiority that is overly exaggerated, this represents a danger of a far different sort. This is a danger that cannot be met by mobilizing wealth, industry, and business.

Not so long ago I read where a statement had been made in a United Nations assembly to the effect that "Wars begin in the minds of men." My question is, "Doesn't everything

*An address delivered before the Indian Section of the Oklahoma Education Association, Oklahoma City, Oklahoma, October 23, 1959

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earthly begin in the minds of men? And if there is in this country a feeling of superiority that is leading us into dangerous complacency, does it not stem from superior feelings in our individual minds and do we not change that feeling **only** by changing our own individual thinking?"

Is there really a national consciousness of where we want to go? Is there a need to take a good look at ourselves to determine if we are headed in the direction we wish to go? Is there need to define our national purposes and then to lay out what must be done, decade by decade, to achieve our goals?

We can be sure that Communism knows where it wants to go—what to do each step of the way; when to fraternize, when to go underground, when to rattle sabers, when to liquidate, and when to ease its pressures on the individual. Those who walk under the banner of Communism know where they want to go, and they indoctrinate their youth so that they, too, know where they want to go. People who live under Communism, either willingly or unwillingly, live under the most austere conditions now to achieve the ultimate goals they have set for themselves. They are, for example, willing to put a much greater percentage of their national wealth in education while they go without cars and refrigerators and comfortable housing. And we—we want two cars to the family, the latest model of everything that makes life comfortable, yet we scream to high heaven when a school bond issue touches our tax pocketbook. We, as a nation, willingly spend more on liquor or cigarettes without blinking an eye than we spend on education, and we wrangle and argue over who should pay for education. Our schools struggle along on a school tax structure that fit the 1800's when real property was our main source of wealth, while we ride in 1959 in a 1960 model car. Isn't all of this rather immature thinking on our part? Are we sacrificing the lasting values for something more immediate and materialistic?

There is no question that we enjoy the

highest standard of living of any country, and that is fine so long as we don't put that first. In advertising to all nations our superior standard of living, are we creating an image of ourselves as a nation of people who are more preoccupied with our comforts than our character? And do we advertise to the world our comforts in preference to our character because we don't have a clear image of ourselves of the great national character that is ours? And if we, ourselves, let our character image fade out of our thinking, where will that lead? Perhaps we need to put our materialistic goals further toward the back of our minds and give more attention to those things that make up our national character. Perhaps we need to give greater emphasis to the great values we cherish. Maybe we should take a good look to see if those values are becoming tarnished because of our failure to put them into practice. Do we need to think more about and talk more about and, more importantly, do more about the principles we stand for such as (a) our respect for the individual, his worth, his freedoms, his responsibilities, (b) our respect for justice and equality under law, (c) our faith in the individual's capacity to govern himself, (d) our trust in the integrity of one another, our sense of responsibility toward others, and our generosity toward others of less fortune, (e) our high regard for family and children, (f) our deep sense of loyalty to country, our devotion to duty, and (g) our trust in a higher Being.

Would you agree that this is the type of national image we should hold up to the world rather than our skyscrapers, our cars, our electric kitchens? And can we hold up to the world an image unless that image is etched into our own minds, unless we know and can state clearly the values we cherish and aspire to and are willing to sacrifice for? These are big questions. I am a person of little stature dealing with a big subject, but it is my feeling that the time is urgent for little people—for all people—to think big about the problems we all face, and the

problems we face today are worldwide in scope.

Perhaps now is the time for us to do our share to hang in the sky a different kind of moon to become the target of world moon-shots—a moon that reflects the image of the great ideals our society stands for. Perhaps, if we demonstrate that we are dedicated toward perfecting that image of ourselves, we may seize the leadership in a different kind of race to a different kind of moon—a moon that has long been in total eclipse for much of the world. This is my first moon—a national moon reflecting our national character, and to give you food for thought, I am going to recommend that you read **Image of America** by R. L. Bruckbergel, and **What We Must Know About Communism** by Harry and Bonaro Overstreet.

And how is this moon—this national moon—related to your work with Indian youth? We are teachers, and our prime responsibility as teachers is to teach youth to think, and in today's world youth, too, must think big.

As teachers we have a twofold responsibility—first, to develop individuals, and second, to do our part to strengthen our democratic way of life (to do our part in hanging that new moon in the sky and helping to perfect the image it reflects). These two responsibilities are closely interrelated—competent individuals, morally strong, strengthen our society, and in turn a society morally and spiritually strong contributes and enhances the growth of individuals.

I searched out from statements we have made to see if the educational philosophy of our schools is in keeping with our responsibility to individuals and to society. My findings are not complete, but here are some of the things that we all have said at one time or another:

1. We say that the individual should be developed to his fullest capacity, and we can find much evidence that we do put this belief into practice in our schools.
2. We say that high school is not enough; that there must be opportunities beyond

the high school; and that our high school work must prepare Indian youth to take advantage of the opportunity for further education—again our belief in developing individuals. And yet, a recent study carried out in one of our jurisdictional areas by a State university under a grant from the U.S. Office of Education pointed up that the parents of the children thought their children needed more education than the Bureau employees thought the children needed. I don't know if there was weakness in the way the question was put that led to an incorrect answer, or if the findings are correct; but if they are correct, that is something for us to think about.

3. We have talked much about the problems of Indian youth who must learn a new way of life—about the emotional problems involved—how to help each find his way from one culture to another without becoming insecure in one before he becomes secure in the other, and yet we are concerned about the growing incidence of delinquency.
4. We have said we believe in developing right attitudes toward work—the dignity of work.
5. We have said we believe in developing responsibility in youth, responsibility for his own activities, responsibility for contributing his share to society, responsibility for services.
6. We have said we believe in developing respect for his heritage, respect for others, respect for authority.
7. We have said that we will help youth fulfill the religious responsibility his family has taught him.

These are some of the things I've gathered from what we have said and written about our work with Indian youth. I'm sure we are doing much to live up to these pronouncements; but how much or how well we live up to them, I don't know.

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I have suggested already that we put in the sky a new moon that would reflect for all the world to see the image of our national ideals. I am now going to suggest that you hang over your school campus a **school moon** that will reflect your school creed—the important things you believe your school should do to carry out its responsibility to the individuals enrolled in your school and which will in turn contribute to the strength of our way of life. I am suggesting that you develop a brief succinct school creed that sets out what you believe, as a school staff, about individual differences, about intellectual capacities of Indian pupils, about respect, about vocational and professional competence, about worth of Indian culture, about flexibility of curriculum in relationship to individual needs, about keeping an open mind, etc.

The development of a school creed, if you have not already done so, will be a staff job. It will take staff meetings to agree upon the important things it will contain; but once you have drafted it and set it down, then you will be ready for the second step: measuring your everyday work against your stated creed. In other words, measuring yourself to see if you are living up to your creed.

Your creed, of course, should be realistic in terms of today's children and youth. (When you have drafted your creed, if you don't mind, I'd appreciate receiving a copy of it.)

Now, I'm going to give you some rather startling facts. Approximately 60 percent of the Indian high school students enrolled in all types of schools do not finish high school, although we say high school is not enough. Does this result from weaknesses in what we believe, or weakness in the way we put our beliefs into practice?

Indian children, on an average, do not achieve academically on a parity with non-Indians, yet all research validates parity of intellectual capacity. And yet, we are spending more on automotive equipment than on our libraries.

Indian college students, on an average,

have greater difficulty in achieving in fields of study that rely heavily on facility in use of English—why?

Indian failure to hold jobs has been due, according to indications, to lack of knowing how to live in accordance with standards required in the average community or how to manage their finances, rather than on lack of job skills—and yet the majority of our schools have not used the school bank as a vital instructional unit in their curriculum—why?

In Indian schools last year, 818 dropped out and 632 failed to return. Why? Where are those students? Are they, without adequate skills and principles, more likely to strengthen or weaken society?

These are facts gathered from all schools. They may not apply, or may not be true in your Area or in your schools. Will you, however, in developing your creed, keep the facts that do apply in your school before you; and in examining your practices, can you find ways to prevent some of these things from happening? You cannot prevent all, I know, but can you prevent some?

Educational Countdown (available from Branch of Education, Bureau of Indian Affairs, Washington Office)

Today's Dropouts — Tomorrow's Problems (available from Branch of Education, Bureau of Indian Affairs, Washington Office)

I have suggested that you hang a second moon that will reflect your school creed and practices. Now, I shall suggest that you do one additional thing, and that is that you help each student fashion his own individual moon which will reflect his individual aspirations and goals. These individual moons will, of course, have to be hung at individual heights, but they should be as high as each student can reach, not easily, but by stretching as high as he can stretch. These individual moons should shine brightly with opportunities, with dreams, and with ambitions.

I had a most interesting experience three

weeks ago when a young Nevada Indian came to my office. He had a dream—and his dream was to teach other youth—and this was his story—and the reason he wanted to teach.

When he graduated from a high school in Nevada, he didn't have any clear notion of what he could do or wanted to do. In fact, he didn't have a very high opinion of his own abilities. He joined the Navy and he began to see that he could do what other boys from all over the country could do—and by comparison measure up favorably. He took advantage of what educational opportunities were offered—and when the opportunity came to go to the Naval Academy at Annapolis, he took it. He graduated, served the Navy, and when he was discharged, took employment as an electrical engineer with an engineering firm in Baltimore. He is making a good salary, has a family, and by all standards, is a success; but he wants to teach Indian boys because he believes he could help them to understand better the opportunities available to them, to understand better their own worth, and how to apply their abilities.

When I showed him the salary of a teacher, his spirits fell, because he knew in the interest of his own family and their education, he'd better stay with engineering; but he said to me, "I'm a dreamer, I guess, but someday I'll find a way to make my dreams come true." And he will, I know, because here is a teacher at heart.

Perhaps there is a lesson here, for is not our greatest service to Indian youth one of supplying each individual with dream stuff—to encourage Indian youth to dream about the great things to be done to make a better world, and then to inspire and encourage each to stretch and stretch and stretch to make his dreams come true? That's what I meant when I suggested that we help each individual fashion a moon that will reflect his aspirations; help him to hang that moon high; and then teach him how to reach it.

And now I return to my title, "How High

the Moon?" Is it really 240,000 miles high? No, that is how far the earth's moon is from us. Without a doubt, that distance will be measured in travel to and from earth to moon by the children sitting in your classrooms this very day.

The height of moons I have discussed cannot be measured in miles. They are measured in aspirations and principles, and they are as high as our aspirations are high. We will measure their height only by our willingness to live by the principles we profess.

And translating the principles we profess into the lives of those we instruct is the great work of great people—American school teachers. And among the greatest of these American teachers are teachers who work in the Bureau of Indian Affairs—You!

2. SCHOOL LIVING— FOUNDATION OF RESPONSIBLE CITIZENSHIP

WHEN, WHERE, AND HOW do individuals develop the qualities that characterize them as responsible citizens? Citizens who believe in, practice, and support democratic procedures in decision and policymaking; citizens who obey laws enacted by a majority of the people out of respect for law and order—not from fear of punishment or embarrassment if they violate them, but out of respect for them as measures established for the protection of their rights and the rights of others; citizens who consistently assume home, family, civic, and other social responsibilities in an attitude of cooperation, understanding, and pride; citizens who through self-imposed allegiance are willing to make great material and personal sacrifices when sacrifices are necessary to community, state, or national welfare and security?

These are broad questions; questions that are presently receiving a great deal of attention because of the rise in juvenile delinquency, a forecaster of youth attitudes which

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may make responsible adult citizenship difficult or impossible of attainment. These are questions for which educators everywhere are seeking answers. We, too, are looking for the answers.

Many of us in answer to the "When" phase of the question would quickly agree that the roots of responsible citizenship must be developed in early childhood and adolescence; that to insure continuous progress toward the desired goal the roots must be nurtured until there is evidence of acceptable growth toward maturity and self-discipline. In answer to the "Where" part of the question, many of us would probably agree that the home and the school have primary responsibility for developing responsible citizens, with the church, youth organizations, community, and other institutions playing important supporting roles. To answer the "How" side of the question is more difficult. We can agree that each institution has a vital role to play; that for optimum child development each agency must do its part and the programs of the different agencies must be coordinated so that the work of each one will enhance the work of the others. Likewise, we can agree that if one institution fails its obligation, the others must try to provide the missing services while the opportunity for success is still favorable, for child development does not wait for favorable growth conditions. Development goes on regardless of the child's surroundings or the factors that influence him. These statements still leave us with the "how" part of the question unanswered. We still need to give it much thought. A discussion of these questions as they relate to the responsibilities of the Bureau's education program may be helpful.

To answer the when and where part of the question as it relates to Indian education is comparatively easy, and the answers can be combined. Every day of the school year approximately 40,000 of our country's young Indian citizens attend classes in the Bureau's schools. Seventy percent (70%) of the children are in the elementary grades and in the

formative years, the years most favorable to the development of the roots of good citizenship. For these 40,000 children the Bureau's schools serve as one of the primary institutions for starting the children off on the road to responsible citizenship. For many of the children the schools serve as both school and home. Many of them sponsor youth organizations that are essential in the lives of the students. The cultural background of the students further enlarges the scope of the schools' responsibility for they must prepare most of them for responsible citizenship in a society culturally different from that of their parents and, at the same time, help them understand that there can be compatibility between the two cultures.

To reach some understandings as to how we can help build the foundation for responsible adult citizenship with these 40,000 Indian students whose education and guidance are our responsibility during their formative years, it may be well to start with our stated objective in Indian education—to prepare Indian students for successful living. If we reach this goal we will have prepared the students for responsible citizenship. Let's look at some of our secondary objectives and how they can contribute to the main objective if they are reached. In the dormitory program our goal might be "to give students experiences in successful living at school." We would want their experiences to be happy, profitable, and satisfying to the extent that after graduation they would continue to live by the standards that guided them while in school. And how shall we help them live successfully at school—shall we set up rules and restrictions which they must observe? Yes, a few rules are necessary where people work and live in groups, and somewhere in the course of their development children must learn that there are laws, rules of conduct, courtesies, and the like which all people are expected to observe. And, at some period, preferably early in life, children must learn to respect authority for it will always be necessary to respect some authority—

parents, supervisors who direct their work, the policeman who directs traffic, and others. But, the rules should be few in number, reasonable and appropriate for the age of the students and clearly understood by them; what they mean, why they are necessary and why they must be observed. And, when the age of the students permits, they should have a part in formulating them. What shall be the penalty for non-observance—not extra work for we want students to look upon work as a desirable interesting activity and not punishment. Denial of privileges: town trips, attendance at games, plays, movies, programs, watching TV? No! Students need all these experiences, and to deny them as a matter of policy as punishment for infractions of rules takes away the very things children need most to further their education, things they sorely need if they are to live successfully. What then is the answer? To live successfully at school, students first need to feel at ease in their surroundings, to know that they are liked and wanted; that a friendly staff is interested in them, has faith in them and is available for help. They need to have the experience of living in colorful, pleasing, interesting, and comfortable surroundings and to have a part in creating and maintaining their surroundings. They need experiences in making decisions about matters which concern them. They need to have many opportunities to observe and to practice courtesy, friendliness, honesty, integrity, cooperation, fair mindedness. They need opportunities to learn that many problems can be solved through discussions that give everyone concerned a chance to present his side of the case. They need to have opportunities to earn money, to spend some and to save some. And, gradually, they need to be freed from restrictions so they can assume complete responsibility for their actions while they are still on campus, and help is available for those who find they are not yet prepared for going it alone. For successful living at school, students must feel that as individuals they are growing in every phase

of living: in social competency and academically; and they must derive a reasonable amount of satisfaction from their accomplishments. Our responsibility to provide the climate in which this growth can take place is clear.

A favorable climate in classrooms and dormitories will provide a positive approach to school and individual discipline. It will not insure, however, that every student will abide by school standards at all times. What then must a school staff do when infractions occur? We suggest that each infraction be used as a teaching situation, and that through the counseling process an attempt be made with each child who errs to help him understand his mistake and how to avoid it in the future. For example, for a child who makes an error in mathematics, his error is used as a learning situation to help him understand where and why he made his mistake. By using his error as a starting point for learning, and by helping him analyze the factors involved, he is assisted over the particular hurdle. When he meets other hurdles, the process is repeated, and little by little, through analysis of error and success, the child gains an ever-deepening understanding of mathematics. But suppose the punishment approach instead of the teaching-learning approach were used, and with his first or second error a series of punishments were imposed for each error made. Would the child learn his math—or would he develop hostility and dislike that would affect any future success in mathematics, and perhaps create unfavorable attitudes that would color all academic learning?

The same teaching-learning approach can and should be applied to social behavior or misbehavior. Teaching a student to analyze his infractions in relationship to school and individual standards, assessing the conditions and circumstances that led to social error, and discussing how to meet similar circumstances in the future, little by little builds into a youthful understanding of the difference between right and wrong. This

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cannot be a one-shot deal. Repetition is one of the laws of learning, and it will require the same patient repetition in the field of social behavior that is required in the teaching of mathematics. It will take more repetition for some students than others, but here, too, teachers and counselors understand the principle of individual differences as it applies to learning.

Acquiring a code to guide one's social behavior is learning, and the same principles of learning should be applied. We predict that the staff that resorts solely to the punishment approach to behavior will eventually create hostility, disrespect, and defeat in their student body.

Is the behavior and attitude of your student body what you would wish it to be? Perhaps in your staff conferences, especially in your inservice training conferences during the summer vacation months, you may wish to challenge yourselves to find the answers to better ways to nurture the roots of good citizenship.

3. THAT WHICH IS PRICELESS— A CHILD

HERE are enrolled in Bureau schools over 44,000 Indian youth; approximately 25,000 of this number are enrolled in boarding schools. In addition, 81,000 Indian children are enrolled in public schools; another 11,000 are enrolled in church and private schools.

The primary purpose of all of these schools is to provide the type of education that will enable Indian youth to be citizens of character—competent to fulfill their responsibilities as individuals to family, community, and Nation. This implies that the school, in cooperation with other institutions of our society, must provide an environment that will nurture character as well as develop intellectual capacities of its students. The school has the responsibility to help Indian children understand the moral standards re-

quired by a non-Indian society and to provide an opportunity through everyday experiences to put into practice, under guidance, the standards they acquire.

Indian children in the past accepted without too much question the standards set and imposed by the school. Indian children were characterized as quiet, well-behaved pupils, which they certainly were. School discipline was no problem. There were, of course, the few who were aggressive and outgoing but, generally speaking, Indian youth were retiring, quiet, timid, and unquestioningly obedient. Their timidity and quietness were accepted as characteristics peculiar to Indian culture.

There was little understanding of the forces that made Indian children quiet and withdrawn. Indian children, especially those enrolled in Bureau of Indian Affairs schools, came from Indian groups that had little understanding of a formal school environment. The great difference between their home environment and the school environment was overwhelming, often bewildering and frightening to them; the strangeness subdued them. The school environment often nurtured submission and compliance to the standards imposed by the schools. The individual pupils who could not survive such restrictions always had the alternative to escape and return to their home reservation where they could be more comfortable and more secure. Many did leave school, and little was said or done about their retreat by either their parents or the school authorities.

Indian youth today, for the most part, are no longer strangers to a school environment, and the Indian way of life no longer provides the comfortable retreat it once did. Indian society is demanding that its youth go to school and stay there. As a result of all of the forces surrounding Indian youth today, there is emerging a student body that no longer can be characterized as quiet, timid, and submissive. Indian youth today in our schools are becoming more assertive, more vocal, and more outgoing.

Shall we condemn these characteristics while we try to wish back the timidity and quietness of a generation ago? It is always easy to make a whipping boy of the past, yet if there had been a deeper understanding and greater insight into the causes of quietness and timidity in the past, perhaps the explosiveness that lay hidden in them would have been revealed. Parents who suddenly realize that four-year-olds are extremely quiet do not take for granted that everything is under control. They sense with forebodings that the four-year-olds are in the lipstick or the black paint or the medicine cabinet, simply because they know an extended period of undue quietness is not natural behavior for four-year-olds. If there had been similar insight into the compliant behavior of Indian school children a generation ago, perhaps its causes and consequences would have been recognized, and something other than acceptance would have been done about it. (Unnatural compliance and withdrawal is not to be confused with the natural serenity, poise, and dignity of Indian personality. There is a world of difference between the two.)

Those who have insight into social behavior warn that the changes are likely to be explosive, as individuals or groups that have been withdrawn or suppressed become more vocal and more outgoing, unless those changes are guided with understanding into positive channels.

Those who are concerned with the education and character development of Indian youth are charged with the responsibility of meeting these changes with understanding, and with directing them into channels that will strengthen character. And it calls for clear thinking.

Faced with a behavior explosion in an individual or a group, the natural tendency is to move in quickly to stop it. One is tempted to confine it, to build a cordon around it, and to suppress it. The usual methods are to slap on more restrictions, to crowd the day full of all kinds of mass activities to keep students busy, whether those activities have real edu-

cational meaning or not. Sometimes the non-compliant (troublemaker, in the eyes of the school) is quietly invited to part company with the school. With a few who excel, the school can put up a good public front and hide the rest from sight. But this process will only aggravate the problem by strapping children to a school environment that gives them no opportunity to develop, under guidance, their moral and social muscles which they should be doing at this stage of their development. The straps eventually will break.

All children need greater understanding and better guidance in today's world. Indian children are no exception. Unless the normal problems of children growing up are met with deep understanding, those normal problems will develop into abnormal problems.

First, understanding to be deep must be built on a genuine affection for children. In the poetic words of Joan Walsh Anglund, affection may blossom quietly in the personality of a child:

"Love comes quietly . . .
but you know when it is there,
because, suddenly . . .
you are not alone any more . . .
and there is no sadness
inside you."

Second, there must be an awareness that each child is an individual, that he grows and develops as an individual, that the group provides the nurture he needs to develop his individuality. Third, there must be a knowledge of the behavior characteristic that can usually be expected as normal at each stage of his growth, accompanied by knowledge and skill in how to help him face his normal growing-up problems in a way that will be meaningful to him. Fourth, there must be the proper school environment—one that will provide satisfying relationships with his peers and with adults. The school that completely ignores the individuality of children and youth is likely to drive them into anti-social behavior.

The following statements and questions

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are meant to challenge the thinking of all school staffs:

1. Adolescents are striving for independence and individuality. They assert themselves, want to make their own decisions. This is as normal for adolescents in the processes of growing into adulthood as creeping and crawling is normal for an infant before walking. Normal reactions may be distorted by nonunderstanding adults into problems, and improper handling of them may produce serious problems that disfigure personality.
2. A school environment should nurture individuality as well as group cooperativeness. Does a youth in your school have adequate opportunity to grow as an individual—or must he travel with the pack all the time? Is there enough power in the thinking of your staff to create a school environment that does give ample opportunity for individuality? This type of environment must go beyond the material. It must also be rich in spirit. Two books, ***Love Is a Special Way of Feeling*** and ***A Friend Is a Person Who Likes You***, by Joan Walsh Anglund (Harcourt Brace and Company, New York) describe in a child's language important nonmaterial needs of children. They are recommended as required study (not reading) for every school employee.
3. Each youth should have the right to make decisions that are appropriate for his stage of development, and to live with his decisions. This means far more than permissiveness to do as he pleases. Not all areas of decision-making can be turned over to youth. On the other hand, it means more than rule enforcement when he oversteps the boundaries of his area for decision-making. What areas of decision-making could you safely, at this time, turn over to youth in your school, and what areas in the school environment must always be reserved for adults, and how do you develop student understanding of the differences between the two?

4. There are many roadblocks in every school that make it difficult for students to develop their independence and individuality: mass teaching and mass recreation, shortage of personnel, overcrowded facilities, lack of materials and supplies, occasionally a negative attitude in some staff members toward the problems of children growing up. What roadblocks exist in your school? The school that tries to live the lives for its students gives them no opportunity to live their own lives. It does them a great disservice; for some it may warp their lives. On the other hand, the school that tries to teach its students to live their lives in ways the students themselves understand will eventually develop a built-in code that will serve a lifetime.

It must be recognized that some pupils come to our schools with problems complicated and deeply rooted—some, so deeply rooted that the school staff will need outside help; a few, so complicated that the problems are beyond the school. But with understanding, with patience, and with genuine affection and respect for each child, the school can meet the growing needs of **most** of the children and will seek the special outside help needed for the few it cannot reach.

School staffs that have understanding will never give up. They will consider it a personal tragedy if they fail as a staff to reach even one student, or to get him the help he needs—because they know in their hearts they have lost that which is priceless—a child.

4. **THERE IS A RIGHT KEY (If we but find it)**

MORE attention than ever before is being given to the school dropout problem, and rightfully so. We have reached a point in time where each year brings greater demands for better educated, and better skilled citizens. Those who fail in this generation to realize their full potential will find

it, in the years ahead, increasingly more difficult to take their places in a world growing more complex by the hour. Schools everywhere are facing up to the demands of a changing world, and are attempting to fashion school programs that will permit youth to grow to full stature.

We, too, in our educational work with Indian youth recognize that our school programs must be designed to help each Indian youth find himself and grow to his fullest stature. We recognize that our school programs must serve Indian youth in very special ways—by helping him to make individual and satisfactory adjustments between two cultures, without sacrificing his personal security in the adjustment process. An educational program for Indian youth, perhaps more than for other children, must give attention to how to bring deeper meaning to the lives of its students, and how to give direction and purpose to the learning efforts of each individual. Unless a school program does this, and thus makes sense to youth on his terms, he is likely without some kind of outside influence or force, such as a compulsory school law, to drop out of school. Too many Indian youth do drop out when they reach the maximum compulsory school age. Most of our school administrators, both public school administrators and Bureau of Indian Affairs school administrators, are seriously concerned over the school dropout of Indian youth. It is true that more Indian youth are staying in school longer, and continuing their education to higher levels, but without detracting from this encouraging progress, we still must look with concern at the school mortality that does exist—because even a small percentage of dropout in a school year is serious. There are examples in some few public high schools, with rather large enrollments of Indians, where almost no Indian youth remain to graduate. The dropout and non-returnee rate in Bureau of Indian Affairs schools, although low in some schools, is too high in others. Regardless of what school the Indian youth is attending, if he

fails to stay long enough to finish at least a high school course, society will later pay the bill for the failure. For him, the school, regardless of its type, has failed to give sufficient meaning, purpose, and direction to permit him to grow to his full stature. The school failed, for him, to make sense.

And what are some of the principles upon which a school staff builds a program that does make sense to youth?

First, the staff must build a school climate that gives a friendly welcome to all students. No one stays long anywhere, unless forced by circumstances to do so, where he is desperately uncomfortable. No one continues his membership voluntarily with a group where he feels he does not belong, or is not wanted. A friendly, warm climate is created in subtle ways—not through overt and superficial effusiveness. Some of the subtleties are expressed in a school administration that is concerned more with the human relationships between student and student, and students and staff, than with public relations even though the latter is important too. Teachers who genuinely are concerned with students' personal problems and happiness, who put emphasis on educating the heart while they educate the head, create without really knowing how they do it, an atmosphere that welcomes students. Just as a friendly climate is created, subtly, and is felt rather than evidenced, so is the converse true. In just as many subtle and indirect ways a school staff can communicate to students a feeling of not being wanted, and teenagers are quick to sense negative or indifferent feelings toward them, no matter how cleverly they are hidden from sight.

Within a friendly, welcoming climate the second principle is to discover the inner person in each child, and to help that child express himself in an individual, creative way that gives sufficient satisfaction to him. It is through his own self-expression that he will grow and develop to his own full stature. Teachers who help each student to find himself, and then to express himself in terms of

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his own capacities and talents give him the security he needs to grow and develop in the image of the person he wishes to be and can become. That image must be individual and designed to make use of and enhance the talents and values each child brings with him to school. The image of what he wants to be, and can become, must be expertly tailored to him as an individual. It cannot be a mold into which he is made to fit. It must be "custom built" if each child is to express himself "creatively in freedom and dignity." Certainly no other way would be in keeping with our democratic way of life.

Whether we be staff of a public or a Bureau school, if we should seriously ask ourselves this question, "Are we giving each Indian child the help he needs individually to discover his potentials?" could we find actual evidence to give an affirmative answer?

Third, a program to make sense to Indian youth must, for them, as for all other learners, provide for sufficient relationship between the known and the unknown, and teachers must know how to help youth discover such relationship. No one can be plunged into calculus, for example, without sufficient foundation in mathematics to give meaning to his study of calculus. No one can successfully study chemical engineering without sufficient background in science to which he can relate his newer learnings.

The same principle of relationship between new and past learnings applies equally to the acceptance of ethical values. Indian youth bring with them from their Indian way of life basic values that should be preserved and strengthened, and built upon. Their deep sense of reverence; their love for beauty, for nature, and for freedom; their sense of dignity; their great generosity; and many other lasting values should be the roots through which the growing personality is nurtured. The teacher who knows how to use these basic values of Indian life, and knows how to help each child build and enlarge upon them will by this effort alone make the

child feel wanted as a person of worth. The teacher who fails to nurture the values of Indian life as the child grows, no matter how indirectly or inadvertently, may prevent him from reaching his full stature. And the staff that deliberately sets out to obliterate Indian values, in the mistaken notion that such measures will speed up the adjustment to modern life, does both society and the individual great disservice. Unless the personal damage that results is negated or repaired in some other way, the result will most likely be a frustrated, discouraged individual, uncertain of himself as he travels blindly between two cultures with no deep roots in either, and with no clear image of what he wants to become. An Indian youth caught in a school situation which gives him a feeling of inferiority toward his Indian heritage often escapes from his untenable situation by dropping out of school. If at the same time he must struggle to master a curriculum that is so far beyond what he already knows that he cannot relate the old and the new, he is almost sure to drop out. If he is told in so many subtle ways that he is a failure and the school would be better off if he didn't return, we can be almost sure that he won't return. If these indictments were generally true, which thankfully they are not, they would call for serious action. Nevertheless, if they are true for even one student they should stimulate soul searching on the part of the school administration and teaching staff.

Recently an opportunity was offered me to talk to a school dropout, and to find out about his school record. His school record showed many failures, both in terms of classroom progress and personal conduct. There were indications that he had received encouragement, but it was encouragement to leave school for the benefit of the other students. When I observed the youth, he was working, and with great pride in his work; he was fitting in well with other workers; there was no evident problem concerning conduct. He was devoting his leisure time to art and

some of his artistic efforts were displayed in prominent places around the premises. Voluntarily he was devoting two nights a week to an art club instructing younger school children in art.

What was the key that released the potentials that must have been present but buried in this lad during his school career? The hand that held the key was a fellow employee who supervised his work. She patiently taught him his job step by step; she helped him dissipate the bitterness that grew out of past failures by substituting success; she nurtured a sense of pride in his work as it grew from a small beginning; she discovered his special interest and flair for art, and saw that he had an opportunity to express his artistic talents; she encouraged him to bring greater fullness into the lives of others by giving children with a similar interest in art an opportunity to learn from him. Although his supervisor, instead of his teachers, found the key that unlocked the potentials of this youth, she followed the same principles that master teachers apply in meeting the needs of each child. Through subtle and indirect ways after some time she was able to give him a sense of belonging to the group; she discovered the inner person and then helped him to find himself. She helped him to develop an image, an individual image of the person he wishes to be, and she made sure that he had an opportunity to express himself successfully through his work and through his art. She carefully taught him by building the new onto what he already knew. She is truly helping him grow into an individual of stature and worth.

Not all school dropouts are so fortunate in finding a person with the right key to release pent-up potentials. This is all the more reason that the right key be found for each individual while he is in school, and only the right key will turn the lock. Our duty is to search until we find the special key for each individual, because there is no one master key that will magically turn the locks to the inner rooms of all children.

5. THE SCHOOL IS A GARDEN-PLACE

THE WHITE HOUSE CONFERENCE is over. Now it is timely to ask: "What was it seeking to solve?" Looking over the evidence in the preparatory reports from the States and the reports of the planning and of the discussions, it seems we are on a national search for better ways to preserve the basic values imperative to our way of life, and for better ways to educate all in the development and use of talents for self-fulfillment and the improvement of mankind. This being the case, then, from the point of view of an educator, the White House Conference was dealing largely with the basic purposes of education—American education.

American education is committed to the preservation of freedom of choice and expression, and national strength based on diversity, as contrasted with systems committed to conformity to serve the State. During the time our national pride was smarting over the success of Russian sputniks, American education was in some danger of losing its perspective. Forgetting the differences of purpose the two education systems serve, unfavorable comparisons were made about the results of American education. It is difficult to keep a cool head in the face of emotionalism, and education was beginning to stray from its basic purpose. If the White House Conference represented a cross section of American citizenry, which it surely did, and if my evaluation of what was being said is correct—our national thinking is on the right course. Our national thinking is steering American education toward the "pursuit of excellence." We are in pursuit of the kind of excellence that will challenge to a greater degree the capacities of each individual. We are in pursuit of the kind of excellence that will motivate each individual to put forth his best efforts to achieve his fullest stature. This is the course education should take to preserve and strengthen our freedom-based way of life.

EDUCATION FOR CROSS-CULTURAL ENRICHMENT

Even though we are on the right course in our "pursuit of excellence" in education, we must not forget that "pursuit of beauty" is a part of excellence. Love for beauty is instinctive with man. Anything that sets aside beauty, or dwarfs its growth and expression, will likewise stifle excellence.

The busy mother of a large family who sets a red geranium in the window of her noisy, crowded kitchen is reaching for beauty; the lonely priest who fences in a small scrap of the vast desert, and there recreates in his patio the loveliness of the gardens he remembers from his childhood, is satisfying a thirst for beauty; the little girl who adorns her curls with a pretty ribbon; the Filipino who weaves bright designs in the grass mat she put on the floor of her simple home; the Seminole Indians who put together bits of cloth of many colors to give gayety to their dress; a Raphael who puts paint on a canvas; or a Michelangelo, who releases a David his mind sees imprisoned in a rough block of marble, are all giving expression to their love for beauty. It is the inward yearning for beauty to be satisfied that prompts the child to put the ribbon in her hair and the great masters to create beauty in oils, or to chisel it from marble.

Within every child there is a feeling for beauty, unborn. That feeling will unfold and blossom through experiences to observe and appreciate beauty, and to create beauty through his own efforts. In this way a child grows in beauty.

The school is the garden-place where beauty should be nurtured to fuller growth; and if the school is the garden, then teachers are beauty's gardeners. Teacher-gardeners to cultivate properly their beauty-gardens must provide all pupils with ample opportunities to express beauty through the creative arts—there must be a variety of opportunities for expression in music, art, drama, dance, in literature, and poetry. And, the teacher-gardener has the same responsibility to discover from all this wealth of expression the potential Raphaels and Michelangelos as

she has to discover the potential Einsteins and Von Brauns. Special talents of all should be equally nurtured and coaxed to grow toward their respective suns. All are important; each has a place and an equal right to growth to fullest stature, even though the age in which his growing takes place may be an atomic or a space age.

Schools that provide opportunities in the creative arts expose children to many creative experiences. This requires a budget for materials and equipment, and space set aside for creative activities. During the past two years emphasis has been given to providing additional opportunities in the dormitory living program for creative expression. Some schools are showing good results.

Indian children bring to school with them a special love for beauty and special talents to give that love expression. Their love for beauty is deeply rooted in the spirituality of their lives. They have a feeling for rhythm implanted in them through the rhythmic experiences of Indian ceremonial dances. This is great potential for growth in appreciation of the dance and music. They have lived close with nature, and this closeness has developed in them powers of observation, a feeling for color and form and line, all of which are potentials for growth in creative expression in many mediums. From the time of their first remembered word, they have experienced the poetry of words spoken by their elders as they listened to the history and legends of their race—great potential for creating poetic and literary expression of their own. They have helped their elders create from material at hand those articles needed for ceremonial purposes or for daily living. They come, therefore, with a natural coordination of eye, mind, and hand: potentials to produce with hand that which the mind conceives. These and many other special talents Indian children lay in the hands of their teachers, and the talents they bring are deeply rooted in Indian heritage. The teachers, then (and dormitory staff are teachers too) hold in their hands the power to

develop or to crush each child's innate love for beauty and his desire to create beauty. Teachers have in their power the opportunity to discover and inspire a Blue Eagle or a Tall-chief, or to force that potential into some general pattern she herself thinks is proper and best for Indian youth.

Secretary Seaton in an address at a luncheon in honor of the Indian delegates to the White House Conference stated the basic objective of the Department when he said: "The objective is to provide our Indian citizens with adequate opportunity for personal development and growth so they can ultimately take whatever place they choose in the larger fabric of our national life. It is not to try to mold Indian people into some abstract image of what we think they ought to be."

6. CHALLENGES TO EDUCATION

AS YOU BEGIN the new school year, let us look together at the specific and complicated problems facing this generation of Indian youth. To set us thinking let us ask, "Why is there a high percentage of unemployment?" You answer, "There are no jobs." But is that really the answer? Have we enough teachers, enough doctors and nurses, enough scientists, enough engineers, enough technicians? No. Then there must be a deeper reason; and that reason is: The background of millions of workers does not match the requirements of today's jobs. Already the President has proposed to the Congress a retraining program to bring the background of today's unemployed more in line with today's requirements.

The median educational level of adults 25 years and over has advanced more rapidly during the last ten years, perhaps, than in any previous decade of our history. The median educational level is now more than the 11th grade and by 1970 is expected to advance to approximately the 12th grade. Again, the President has said in statements

to the Congress and to the public that our educational efforts must be accelerated if this country is to move forward. And move forward we must!

Our world situation is tense. The cold war has not lessened. Vast numbers of down-trodden peoples the world over are awakening and struggling desperately to lift themselves out of their mass poverty and illiteracy. They are reaching out to anyone who will help them, and they want more than charity. Yes, they are hungry and they need bread, but they want more than bread. They want opportunities. They want opportunities to achieve their aspirations; they want to find a place for themselves and their nation in the family of nations, a place that will accord them the respect and dignity human beings deserve.

Now how does acceleration of the educational level of this country and the tensions of the world relate to what you do this year? How does what you do relate to the freedom of down-trodden peoples?

Our Nation, in striving for its own freedom less than 200 years ago, mobilized its patriots and fired the shot heard around the world. If this country is to exercise its leadership in promoting freedom, it is up to us to set off a different kind of shot to be heard around the world. The manpower behind this modern shot will be the teachers of this country, and their arsenals are the classrooms of our schools.

If we are to achieve leadership in promoting our beliefs concerning the dignity of the individual and his right to live out his life with the greatest possible measure of freedom, we must have quality instruction for our youth. If we are to prepare the citizenry of this country to understand the interrelationships of the problems throughout the world, our classrooms must be manned by highly competent teachers. If we are to prepare our citizenry with the professional, technical, and managerial skills to match the requirements of today's highly technological and space-oriented world, we must have

quality teaching. This is the broad outline of the problems we face as a nation, and the solution to these problems hangs heavily on the classrooms of the country and the kind of instruction that must take place there.

Now, what about Bureau teachers—all of us? Each employee in the Bureau in a sense is a teacher. Our teaching demands even greater quality than holds true generally for teachers elsewhere. Why? While the median educational level for the general population is above the 11th grade, what about Indians' achievement level? It is about half that. This means, in frightening terms, that half of the Indian population with whom we have direct concern is functionally illiterate as illiteracy was defined by the Army during the last war. To function as a literate person, at least the equivalent of a fifth-grade education is required.

As the world grows more complex, without doubt, the literacy requirements will increase. This puts the problems of Indians in bold relief. At least a five-grade gap must be bridged for them to catch up; but catching up is not enough, they must keep up. To help Indians catch up and keep up will require teaching of the highest order. This, in turn, means highly competent teachers.

We have no other choice but to help Indians accelerate their educational level rapidly to bridge this gap. This means rapid change, and rapid change when it comes to any people is fraught with dangers—serious dangers. But we dare not fail this generation, because if we do these students will be so seriously undereducated when they grow up they will not be able to find work or to function in the complex world in which they must live. We have no alternative except to work fast to wipe out the educational deficit that exists. But let us not be blind to the dangers; let us face them, know what they are, and do all we can to soften their impact.

May I point out two major danger areas and ask you to think them through in more detail? First, when an individual is exposed to new ideas so fast that he cannot properly

build the new into the old, there is great danger of that individual losing his sense of direction and balance. He may believe he must give up the old and if he does before he is properly grounded in the new, there is great danger of his not knowing what he believes. He is swayed by every spectacular notion that comes his way. He snatches it for a while, but quickly gives it up when something different comes along. If this happens when tensions are great as they are today, it can result in fanaticism, frustration, rebellion, and delinquency. Do you see the deep implications for us? A competent teacher must teach more than subject matter. She must teach that subject matter in such a way that she helps each child maintain his sense of direction by helping him to build the new into the solid values of his own way of life.

Second, youth to achieve the levels of education required must leave his parents far behind. What he must learn will be completely foreign to the minds of his middleaged parents and, perhaps, heresy to his traditionally oriented grandparents.

Education has always had to concern itself with the gap separating each generation, but not to the degree that exists today between the Indian generations. Unless we know how to deal with this in a helpful way the generations will be worlds apart, completely lacking in understanding of each other. Lack of understanding between parents and children undermines respect for parental authority. And let us never forget that anything that undermines respect for parents and parental authority is dangerous because it can grow into disrespect for all authority, which is the seed that can grow into delinquency.

There is no one who can have greater influence on the development of Indian people than a competent teacher; and a competent teacher, in addition to teaching skill, has the understanding that enables her to help youth develop a sense of personal direction and balance. A competent teacher helps youth understand and avoid the pitfalls and danger

areas of growing up. As you plan your educational program for this year, keep in mind that the need for quality instruction is so great that even our best is not good enough; therefore, we will never cease trying to do better. We must not, we dare not, lose this generation.

7. YOUTH ARE CONCERNED

PROGRESS IS BORN OF CONCERN, either the concern of an individual or the concern of a group of individuals. The individual who becomes concerned about his appearance, his habits, or his economic status mobilizes his resources to do what he can to improve his appearance or his habits or his economic status. When groups of individuals become sufficiently concerned about slum conditions, water pollution, crime, schools, or other community conditions, they organize to do what they can to change the condition.

The opposite of concern is indifference and complacency. Complacency is the beginning of decadence; concern is the beginning of progress.

Although concern is the genesis of progress, it must be kept within the bounds of reality. Concerns that have grown beyond the ability of the individual or the group to cope with the conditions that produced them can give rise to feelings of hopelessness. Hopelessness, in turn, is the beginning of frustrations; and severe frustrations can cause breakdown of the will to achieve. This leads to the premise that concerns are healthy and lead to progress so long as they do not exceed the resources to cope with or to change the conditions that produced them.

Based on this premise, education has a twofold responsibility: first, to stimulate healthy concerns; and second, to develop the resources and abilities with which conditions that produced the concerns can be met.

We often take for granted that we know the concerns of youth. Sometimes, we as-

sume without evidence that the concerns of youth are the same as our own or the same as the concerns of adults of their group. More times than not, this is not the case. Too often we fall into the trap of overgeneralization. We learn a few general categories of concern to expect in youth, or we learn the concerns of a few individuals in a group, and from that we jump to the conclusion that the categories apply to all youth. By this approach we try to squeeze all individuals into molds that fit only a few. In so doing, we cause trouble for ourselves and the individuals who do not fit the molds. Each young person may have some concerns that apply generally to others in the group, but because of his individuality he has many that apply only to him. Unless we know his special concerns and understand how he can be helped to develop the special abilities to resolve his concerns, we may develop in him frustrations instead of stability and growth.

A test to determine the major concerns of high school students enrolled at the Stewart Indian School was given during the 1960-61 school term, and this test turned up some surprising results. It is generally assumed that Indians are not future oriented. This test indicated just the opposite for most of the Stewart students. By comparison with non-Indian youth of their age and grade, as reflected in the norms of the test, the youth at Stewart are deeply concerned about the future. One of their major concerns relates to jobs. They felt that they need to know more about how to get and hold jobs and how to measure up to what is expected of them on the job. This concern over what they are to be and how they will measure up indicates future orientation in this particular group.

No doubt the school itself has been responsible for stimulating these concerns. In that, the school has fulfilled only a part of its responsibility. Should the school now abandon these students (which it will not) before developing in them habits, attitudes, and abilities to give them a sufficient

feeling of adequacy to cope with their concerns, great damage would be done. Concerns accompanied by deep feelings of inadequacy lead to insecurity and irresoluteness which, in turn, may be projected into undesirable behavior, even delinquency.

A second surprising revelation by the youth tested was concern over their academic inadequacy. They expressed far more concern than non-Indians, by comparison to the norms, over lack of ability to use the library with proficiency and their inability to handle English as well as they wished.

These concerns, as well as others, that showed up on the test are important indicators for the school if it is to meet its responsibilities to develop a feeling of adequacy in its students. Likewise, each employee needs to know the concerns of each individual student under his instruction or care if his teaching and guidance are to contribute to adequacy. Unless he knows the basic concerns of his students, a teacher will be seriously handicapped in helping them. Without this knowledge, he could be developing in his students frustrations that may be expressed in undesirable behavior.

Do you know the concerns of each student in your group?

Determining the basic concerns of your students is the first step toward helping them grow into secure individuals. Finding out what these concerns are and planning ways to help students develop adequacy in relationship to them is the basis for the development of an integrated guidance and instructional program.

8. HELPING CHILDREN STAY IN SCHOOL

THE RESPONSIBILITY OF EDUCATORS, broadly speaking, is to help children realize their full potential as individuals and as members of a group. To do this takes time, skill, patience, money; even then, under optimum conditions the intricate psycho-

logical and sociological aspects of human behavior do not permit complacency or guarantee success. If this is true under ideal conditions, think what handicaps are created for educators and students alike when students drop out of school. What potential is lost? What talent is wasted? What seeds of despair and disillusionment are sown, perhaps to blossom later in adult manifestations of frustration. Who can say?

What are we to do? Our course would seem clear. Bureau schools must continue to devise well-rounded programs that interest and meet the needs of their students. There are many phases of school life for each student—phases which, when added together, comprise the totality of school experiences. Deficiencies in any one phase can be a source of irritation and a possible cause of dropouts. What are some of the things that can be done to improve the holding power of Bureau schools and to reduce the number of schoolleavers? Many schools have been working expeditiously to increase their holding power; the following is an account of such an effort by one Bureau school.

A Bureau education specialist, as a result of a recent trip to this school, has this to say: "One comes away with a very good feeling about the respect, consideration, and devotion that the students and staff members have for one another, both toward their peers and in the relationships of students with adults, and adults with students. There is a harmonious atmosphere at this school." The students have had a great deal to do with the development of this harmonious atmosphere. Examples of this were in evidence as the students returned for the new school year. Knowing the insecurities and fears of new students, older students welcome them and do their best to make the newcomers feel at home in their new surroundings. This has the effect of reassuring the new students and easing what is sometimes a difficult adjustment. As the youngsters greet one another and participate in the opening day activities, one can almost "sense" that this school be-

longs to the students. They have progressed to the point where they assume major responsibility for the care of their school. In far too many cases students engage in destructive practices that deface their school simply because aesthetic values have been imposed on them. These values belong to the school administration, but not to the students. Consequently, they are ignored or violated, often as a protest against authority. However, at this school the clean, well-kept campus, the attractive dormitories and the challenging classrooms are all signs that the students care for their school because they care about it.

The students' attitudes, conversations, and mannerisms reveal their pride in their school; pride in the beauty of the campus; pride in the dormitories completely prepared for their arrival; pride in the classrooms. They seem to be saying: "This is a good place to be, a place for opportunities, a place for education, a place where there is warmth and understanding, a place where the staff waits for our arrival in much the same way, and with the same warmth, that our parents await our return home." This impression of a radiantly friendly, efficient, purposeful school plays a great part in persuading students to return to and stay in school.

Let us take a closer look at some of the ways this school is developing responsibility, leadership, and pride in its youngsters. The foundation of any school is its instructional program. It must be current in terms of curriculum and techniques of instruction, with a high degree of professionalism. The education program at this school is constantly being evaluated to insure a curriculum suited to the needs of the students. One recent example of this is the revision in the industrial arts program. More courses are being offered on the practical arts level, with emphasis on an adequate academic background. Vocational courses are to be pursued on a post high school level. This is in keeping with the vocational trend in this field. The students' gratitude for and their eagerness to take ad-

vantage of their educational opportunities are heartwarming.

Every school should have a heart—a library. A library permeates the school's programs with its vitalizing services and helps to insure against the insidious eroding effects of inadequate research facilities for problem solving. A library also eases the burden of heavy-hanging leisure time by providing wholesome books for recreational reading. This school has a heart. The students take great pride in their library and through their school publications stimulate one and all to make use of the facility. There is a variety of interesting, informative books, along with other materials, that makes the school's library the center of academic activity. The volume of student traffic to and from the library tells better than words how the students feel about it.

Important too, to any school, are its organizations. These organizations play a prominent part in influencing a student's attitude about school. Foremost among these organizations is the student council. The council is organized early in the school year and functions effectively throughout the school term. It plays a paramount role in helping to create the atmosphere of the school. The school administration gives consideration to the opinions of the council on matters it believes to be within the realm of student responsibility. The student body is aware of this. The knowledge that their representatives can speak and have their views given consideration adds to the spirit of co-operation that exists between students and staff.

Other factors that contribute to this school's holding power are the homeroom and assembly programs. These programs are especially valuable in developing leadership traits. They give students opportunities to practice speaking before others; to engage in democratic exchanges of ideas; to learn and practice the use of parliamentary law; to learn to conduct meetings; and to understand the value of planning school programs for

presentation.

In today's world, beset by tensions discernible even by youngsters, all work and no play can lead to physical and emotional ills. Life is not all work and no play at this school. There is ample opportunity for each student to engage in extra-curricula activities such as clubs, recreational programs, and other forms of leisure-time activities. The proper use of leisure time is one of the most important things a youngster needs to learn in this modern age. It is highly unlikely that children who know how to make proper use of leisure time will become behavior problems because of boredom.

These are some of the things that indicate why this school has developed holding power. Mutual respect between the students and the faculty, challenging instructional programs, relaxing and pleasing extra-curricula activities—these are the ingredients of its success. Is this your school?

9. STAFF ATTITUDE AND EDUCATION

In another article, "Educational Demands for the Years Ahead," we stated that our education goals for the next five years would be pointed to ways to achieve excellence in school operations.

Education quality in the program of any school has its beginning in the attitudes and point of view of the staff. What a staff believes is reflected in the tone or climate of the school, and school climate is something that is felt more than seen. School leadership is responsible for setting the tone and maintaining climate. What should be the point of view of the staff in school programs for Indian children?

Children Come From Many Backgrounds

Some children come from homes and communities that give support and positive direction to their lives, and supply the affection needed to nourish their emotional and educational growth; a few come from homes

and communities that give the wrong example, directives are negative, and affection is absent; still a few others have never known a home of their own. Some come as secure and serene individuals; others are insecure and afraid; some come with outstanding ability; most with average ability; and a few are seriously below average. A few come from homes where parents have had a college or high school education; another few come from homes where parents have had an elementary education; but the parents of most have had less than eighth grade or no education. Some speak English as their first language; most, I suspect, do not. Some parents can read and write; many are illiterate. A few have had contacts and experiences outside their isolated communities; most bring only limited experiences from their background.

Children Are Not All Alike

Science tells us that although snowflakes are formed of water, come from the same cloud, and all are white and even appear alike, yet under a microscope one learns that when crystals are put together in various ways that no two are exactly alike. So it is with these children—each child brings with him uniqueness which makes him unlike all others. What should be our point of view toward these children who bring with them more differences than likenesses? Shall we set out an educational diet of high quality that only a few can digest, and forget the others or let them muddle along as best they can or subtly invite or encourage them to forage for their education as best they can, and where they can? If that becomes our point of view we can operate schools of excellent standards academically, because by selection and through elimination we will retain only those with above-average abilities. But can we preserve the individual freedoms and rights of our way of life if we educate only an elite class, and who among us has the wisdom to determine with any degree of accuracy which children really are the most intelligent?

Shall we keep the good boys and girls who apply themselves to their school work without too much effort on our part and send the bad and disinterested packing, or shall we try to convert bad boys to good boys, and develop interest where it is lacking? Edison wasn't considered a good boy by his teachers. I leave these questions with you, but I think I know you well enough to know that your answers will fall into a pattern similar to that outlined below.

Our role as educators is to influence the lives of all children in positive directions—to search out the potentials of each child because each is a person of worth, and to develop each to his fullest; to help each child to grow into a useful, upright citizen prepared to use his special talents for his own betterment and for the betterment of society. If we can do this, each child will receive the education that is quality education for him.

If your point of view with respect to education of all children is similar to the point of view I have just described, and I believe it is, what then are some of the personal qualifications that each staff member must have to put his point of view into practice?

Children Need Genuine Affection

Here are a few qualifications which in my opinion are **musts**: I strongly believe that no education employee can perform at the quality level in his work with children unless he or she has a deepseated love for children and youth. I believe further that this feeling must be genuine, not something superficially put on like a cloak. It must, in my opinion, come from the heart, and unless it comes from the heart the children with whom we work will be the first to detect its insincerity. Children and youth are sensitive to the feeling and attitude of others toward them. They seem to have built-in radars that pick up lack of feeling for them from the faintest signals, no matter how cleverly those signals are camouflaged.

It takes patience and perseverance—and a willingness never to give up—if we are to

influence children in positive ways. Lacking basic affection for children (affection for the rascals as well as the angels among them), no adult could possibly have the patience and fortitude necessary to live and work with children.

On the other hand, given affection, that they know is there, children can tolerate without emotional damage to themselves, our many failures and our impatience toward them. Therefore, the qualification of highest priority is affection for children and youth. Like charity it covers a multitude of our sins. Its presence in a staff supplies the warmth in a school climate so necessary for healthy educational and emotional growth of children and youth. Each of us must be able then to give affection in ways appropriate to the age level of the children with whom we work, and to accept affection in appropriate ways from them. Without it, children cannot grow in emotional strength and spiritual sturdiness any more than plants can grow in the absence of sunshine.

Children Need Understanding

Second, we must have a workable understanding of the growing-up process, the kind of behavior normally to expect at different stages in a child's development from childhood through adolescence, the type of behavior that gives signs of lack of progress in the maturing process. Without this understanding we may mistakenly think the problems of normal children growing up to be deviate behavior of a serious nature. Without this understanding we may handle the problems of a child as though he were a problem child, and by our mistakes we could actually start him traveling in negative directions instead of the positive directions we hope for him.

Unless we have some knowledge of the growing-up process, we can no more cultivate human growth to full flowering, than we could grow a rose garden without some knowledge of the nature and requirements of roses, and isn't the human garden placed in our hands to cultivate filled with far more

fragile beauty than any rose garden? How much greater, then, must be our understanding of its nature and requirements.

In our work with Indian children some extra understandings are necessary. The children with whom we work are growing up in a culture which is different in many respects than the culture taught in the schools. Indian children need help in their task of reconciling the differences between two cultures. Without this help they may not be able to bridge the gap; they may find themselves lost in the differences between the two; they may, to their detriment, discard important values of their native life without substituting others to take their places. If we are properly to help them we must have special understanding of their way of life; we must know how to interpret for them the way of life toward which we are orienting them; we must help them make the transition without destroying their pride in their heritage. It is especially important that we understand the values in Indian life, because we cannot help children readjust and apply their values to new situations unless we know what they are.

Indian cultures teach behavioral codes that give moral direction to its members, and members have been taught how to use their codes in their personal relationships with one another and to apply their codes to the everyday situations which arise in their lives. These codes are based on many values universal to all cultures—values such as honesty, truthfulness, patience, fortitude, courage to do what must be done, industry, etc. There need be no change of values—the need is to learn to use old values in new situations—and newer applications must be patiently and systematically taught the same as any other lesson.

Newer applications do not come automatically. Many of the problems which we think children have may be problems that have been created because we did not understand well enough how to interpret to children the requirements of the dominant culture and

how to adjust to them—the relationship of values of the dominant culture to values of the native culture.

In addition to point of view, affection, understanding of child development and growth, and understanding of native cultures, a staff needs leadership and direction. Quality in leadership will be the subject of some future article.

10. THE SMALL SCHOOL ALSO SERVES

MANY OF US can remember the one- and two-room country schools where all grades were taught. Some of us attended such schools, and some of us started our teaching careers in one-room schools.

As motor transportation replaced the horse-drawn vehicle and paved roads replaced dirt roads, the one-room schools gave way increasingly to larger consolidated schools. The larger school, without question, can provide better instruction, a broader educational program, better qualified teachers, and extra educational services of an enriching nature. No one would want to reverse the trend and reestablish a system of small schools. Nonetheless, the small school had certain advantages that somehow have a tendency to get overlooked in the larger school. This is unfortunate, and every effort should be made to find ways to incorporate the good characteristics of the small school in the operation of the larger school.

First, the small school was the center of activities for the school district. Patrons were proud of their school. They took a personal interest in who was hired to teach their children and what the teacher taught. If the personal habits of the teacher did not conform to the values held by the citizens of the district, the teacher either conformed or was not rehired. This may seem a little extreme to us today, but it demonstrates the deep concern that parents had, not only regarding what was taught to their children but the example

the teacher set for them. The result was that the school closely reflected the value system of the home, and the teaching of the home and the school was well articulated. Now that the school is further removed from the home, much of this personal interest by parents concerning what is taught is lost. The hiring of teachers likewise does not get the personal attention it once did by the total community.

The small rural school was a social center for the community. Illness, a fire, a wedding, a birth, or death—in fact all the happenings of the community—were of as much concern to the teacher as to other members of the community, for the teacher was both friend and resident of the community. The teacher was a symbol of integrity, strength, and security: a person who could be trusted and one who personally cared what happened to the members of the group, then and in the future. Schools patrons gathered at the school for parties. The monthly debate or spelling bee provided an excuse to get together. If something went wrong with the equipment or if equipment was needed, the entire community pooled its resources and made the need equipment or fixed the old. This type of personal involvement is missing in today's schools and with its going has gone a good part of the old type parental interest and involvement in the school.

Other ways should be found to recapture the interest, the personal involvement, the watchfulness over the program, and the pride in the school. Parent-Teacher Associations if they function properly do help, but somehow the personal involvement usually encompasses only a few rather than the entire school clientele. Are there not other ways to give the school the importance it used to hold for each school patron?

In the Bureau of Indian Affairs the community school served the same general function as the small country school of our childhood. It served as the center for community activities. Indian children attended to learn English, reading, writing, and arithmetic. The community school also served as a win-

dow to the outside world. Through the school the community members were exposed to newer ideas concerning health, sanitation, diet, civic responsibilities, etc. Parents, as well as children, were exposed to the newer ideas, which lessened the gap between parental and pupil understanding of the new. In fact, the community school did much to acquaint Indian parents with the importance of education for their children, and without question sowed the seeds for the interest that present-day Indians have in education.

Indian parents also had a proprietary interest in the school, since it provided water and equipment lacking in the homes. Parents came to the school to use the school sewing machines, to use the school bathing facilities, to use the school washing machines, and to use the school shop and tools. The school housekeeper, under the direction of the teacher, helped the mothers learn how to use patterns to make the school clothing the children needed, how to use the washing machines, and how to prepare a better diet for their children. The school bus driver or laborer was in charge of the shop and tools. The school through the facilities it afforded brought parents to the school and they could see what their children were learning and how well they were doing. While the bread was baking or while waiting a turn for the sewing machine or the shop, mothers and fathers visited the classrooms. This was their school, and the teacher were their teachers. The parents learned to know the teachers, and equally important, the teachers learned to know every parent. This latter is a facet of the small community school which should never be lost, no matter how large a school grows.

In another article, "Indian Participation in Education," we pointed out the type of responsibilities Indians, especially Indian leaders, are assuming. However, we wonder if many of the Bureau schools have not lost some of the old intimacy between parents and school that characterized the community school. Explosions of school population

made it necessary to use many of the facilities formerly used by the community for classrooms for the children. The schools that are now being built are larger but do not provide the old type community facilities. Much of the value of the small community school will be lost unless we are ingenious enough to provide other methods to preserve that value.

We need to find ways to acquaint every parent with what goes on in the school. We need to find ways to involve more parents in the activities of the school. We need to find ways to get greater parental participation in school planning. We need to find ways to get parental help to solve the problems of pupils who are having difficulty in adjusting to school. We need to find better ways to acquaint parents concerning the needs of the rapidly changing world, and the impact this will have on the future of their children. We need to seek parental help in finding ways to prepare their children better for the changes the 20th century is bringing to us all.

As was pointed out in the article referred to earlier, a great deal of community interest is stimulated through the efforts of the tribal education committees. These committees have exercised a great deal of the leadership that formerly was carried by the teachers and teacher aids in the small schools. There has also been increasing interest in establishing Parent-Teacher Associations in Bureau schools; in several places Indians serve as elected members of school boards. This is not to discredit activities such as these. It is intended as a challenge to both parents and school officials to find ways to establish a closer relationship between parents and teachers, and between the school and the Indian community in the larger school settings that are emerging. Perhaps it will also alert us to weigh more seriously the relative values of small and large schools as well as the readiness of the community before we consolidate the small school with a larger one, especially if bigness is our main objective.

11. VALUES OF THE SMALL SCHOOL: CAN WE PRESERVE THEM?

In THE ARTICLE "The Small School Also Serves," we indicated that the task of relating the school to the Indian home and involving the Indian parents in school affairs is easier in smaller schools than in the larger schools located more remotely from Indian homes. It was pointed out that bigness alone is not the controlling factor, and consolidation which eliminates contact between parents and school should be weighed in terms of alternate values. Larger schools do have certain advantages so far as economics and expanded educational services are concerned; but when operations are consolidated into larger units, attention is needed to find ways to assure the fullest possible parental and community participation in school affairs.

This issue discusses two small Bureau schools currently in operation: one, a small elementary school; the second a small high school operated jointly by the Bureau and a public school district in a rural community attended by both Indian and non-Indian children. The purpose of this article is not to attempt to solve the size problems of schools, but rather to show what can be done and what is being done in two small schools to enrich the lives of children, to serve the community, and to compensate for smallness.

The small elementary school enrolls pupils in the first and second grades. Instruction in each of these elementary grades is carried on by an enthusiastic teacher with long years of experience. The teacher's insight in methods to motivate learning and willingness to give unstintingly of her time and energies to the instructional program result in excellent attendance.

The children are happy, responsive, and outgoing. Speaking English is no serious problem because the children are full of ideas about the interesting things they are doing.

This small school is much more than four bare walls housing the 28 children who attend. When one walks into the classroom, there is evidence to show that children are studying and working here. There are materials to occupy busy minds and busy hands. Books, pictures, filmstrips, bulletin board displays of children's work, nature specimens, arts and crafts items, and play materials for the smaller children are well organized into learning centers.

Music and art are also a part of the program in this small school. Children, even the smallest, participate. The ideas of growing minds are expressed in childish dabs of paint. Joy and happiness, the birthright of every child, are nourished into expression through music.

The health of the children is not neglected. Physical exercise and games develop muscles, and a nutritious lunch nourishes growing bodies.

Social graces and good grooming are not overlooked. Table manners, expressions of courtesy, and attention to personal appearance are a part of the instructional program.

And how does the teacher squeeze all of this into a teaching day? She doesn't. Her personality attracts children. They seem to be always there. They find excuses to stay after school to practice their music or to help the teacher prepare for the next day or to practice for a program which they will give before a public group. Both teacher and children truly enjoy these out-of-school hours together, and as can be expected, a great deal of learning goes on during these informal associations. The influence of this teacher also reaches into the community. She is a friend of the parents and a counselor for the teenagers who attend nearby high schools. They also gather at this small school after school hours for help, for companionship, and to use the facilities of the school. The girls sew and the boys use the basketball courts. Some use the laundry facilities; others play the musical instruments.

For more than five years this teacher has

taught classes for boarding school pupils who return to this community for the summer months. These students, too, have participated in music, arts and crafts, and athletic activities. As a result of their summer music program, the children were invited to perform at the State Fair. Parents had an opportunity to see their children's performance on television.

Organizing a summer program that involves the older youth in activities at their level, and at the same time providing activities to interest small children such as doll-sewing projects, storytelling, skits, plays, and games require ingenuity.

The social dividends that will accrue from the work of this teacher cannot be fully measured. The teacher's statement that she may not have had these rich experiences except for a word of encouragement from an old timer during her first few weeks in the Bureau shows that she, too, finds her work personally rewarding. No doubt you can recall revered members of your own family or other people whom you have known and admired whose strength of character, sense of justice, concern for the welfare of others, willingness to accept responsibility—in fact, all of their lovable sterling personal qualities—had their beginnings in a small humble school taught by so great a teacher.

The second school is a small rural high school enrolling both Indian and non-Indian students. Three years ago, five townships and parts of three other townships were organized into one district; and under authority of a special State law, the public school officials pooled their financial resources with existing Bureau resources. Public school children and the Bureau school children are intermixed in classrooms so that the school operates as one. The public school district provides nine of the teachers and the Bureau provides seven. Each also provides a share of the transportation costs. The Parent-Teacher Association sponsors the hot lunch program.

The school offers music, typing, and two

tions is stamped their creed.

The same is true of a school. A school building is not a school; it takes children and teachers to make a school. The people, not the building, are the soul of the school; and the soul of the school reflects the beliefs of the individuals who teach there. The school creed is stamped in every action, and every word of every member of the school. It is also reflected in the behavior of the children.

Suppose at the beginning of this school year we recite our educational creed, and then frequently during the school term examine our educational conscience to determine how well we practice what we believe. First, what do we believe? Perhaps our creed would go something like this:

I believe that each child has the right to the kind of education that will develop his particular capacities to their fullest; therefore, I know that my teaching must reach each child.

Does this mean that my teaching will reflect a belief in individual differences? Will I find out what these differences are? And, how will I capitalize on the strengths and minimize the lacks in each child's background? Will my classroom reflect what I believe about individual differences, or will my instruction aim at the average student with little thought for deviates from the average?

If I really believe in the right of each child to develop to his fullest capacity, what will I do with the student who reads two grades below the average and with the one who reads two grades above the average? By the way, what is the reading span in the group of children I teach? Do I know? And, do I know the particular bent or interest of each child? Which children like school, and which do not, and why do some like school, and others do not? What is the background of each child in my class? And, what relationship does that have to my teaching? Do I act as though I really care?

I believe that in each individual there are potential talents and abilities that have not

been discovered; therefore, it becomes my duty to discover and develop them.

Do I try to understand each child, and by means of that understanding, do I encourage him to reveal to me his innermost self, or do I through my actions force him to keep himself hidden from me? Do I try to find and touch the spark within each child, even though that spark may be deeply buried, or do I dampen and extinguish it forever by my clumsiness? Do I recognize the ember of genius in each child, and do my best to fan it into an Edison or a Franklin or an Einstein? How do I find out these things, and do I know what to do about them when I find them?

I believe each child will live up to my expectations of him; therefore, I must expect the highest within his individual reach.

Do I set high standards within the reach of each child—standards that will cause him to stretch and grow educationally, yet will not be so far beyond him that he cannot possibly reach them? Do I condemn him if he cannot achieve at equal standards in all his endeavors, or do I encourage him to overcome his weaknesses, and strengthen further his strengths? Do I challenge him to outdistance himself, or do I overtax him with races he cannot possibly win—but at the same time do I make sure that the race is not beyond him, given the proper help?

I believe that each child is a person of worth and deserving of respect; therefore, I will maintain at all times a dignified and respectful atmosphere in my classroom.

Do my actions indicate that I know respect begets respect; or do I expect respect toward me from the children in my classroom, and at the same time show them disrespect by my own actions toward them? Do I correct them in a helpful way, or do I belittle them? Do I lose my temper with them, yet expect them not to fly into temper tantrums? Do I look for causes for a child's actions beyond the child himself, or do I treat his actions as a personal affront to me, the

teacher? In other words, do I expect greater understanding on the part of the child toward me than I, an adult, show him?

I believe that children learn by example, as well as precept; therefore, I know that what I do speaks as loudly as what I teach.

If I am courteous and considerate, the children in my classroom will imitate me; if I am orderly and neat, they will learn to be orderly and neat faster than they will learn through rules and preaching. I know many of my habits will become their habits because I have seen my actions displayed in their actions—yet, do I conduct myself in my classroom as though I expected children to do as I say, not as I do?

Knowing that good citizenship in adults has its beginning in childhood, am I really

concerned about each individual child's preparation to meet the demands of the future? Do I, as his teacher, during a period of months or years while he is in preparation for the next higher grade make that period challenging and rich and purposeful so that there are no "lost" months or years? Does he find, in my classroom, the security he needs in order to voice his desires and aspirations, to express himself independently and creatively, and to act with assurance and courage?

If every teacher in every classroom developed a classroom creed, and then conducted the instructional program in a manner that truly reflected his or her beliefs, would not the quality of instruction be advanced? Certainly, quality of instruction must always be our major concern.

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PROGRAM RESPONSIBILITY

1. CLIMBING THE EDUCATION MOUNTAIN

MANY trends or influences are evident in our national life today that, of necessity, will give direction to the education for the Nation's youth. These trends affect the lives of Indian people in the same way as they affect the general population. Increased mobility of Indian people, and the changing employment opportunities are already having a significant impact on Indian education and must continue to do so in the future.

These two trends and many others are sure to prove major determinants in any educational plans. The magnitude and complexity of the problems will commit Bureau schools to new and different tasks. It is imperative that the changes and forces which influence the direction of Indian education in the future bring forth our maximum efforts to provide the right kind of program to meet the educational needs of the school population. It is too easy to assume that so long as an Indian child is in school he is getting the right kind of education and, therefore, has educational opportunity equal to that of any other child. Such an assumption ignores a whole complex set of problems and special needs that many Indian children bring to school with them. Education for these children must be geared to the demands of the future, and at the same time, meet these special needs.

Our greatest need today is for long-range planning that will insure each child the kind of education that will best enable him to live in today's and tomorrow's world. How are we going to meet this challenge? Much of the success of our educational program in years to come will depend upon how well we

plan now.

Setting Objectives

Abraham Lincoln once said, "If we could first know where we are, and whither we are tending, we could better judge what to do and how to do it." This quotation seems to be a readymade guideline for those charged with the education of Indian children. Administrators, educators, and Indian people must determine where they are and where they want to go before they can decide what to do and how to do it.

Long-range planning must set goals toward which school personnel can work. It is not difficult to get people to agree in principle that we must develop and maintain a program of education which affords each individual the maximum opportunity for achievement, self-realization, and social effectiveness. But to give substance to such a program calls for unremitting thought and effort. The kind of program we are talking about demands quality and quantity so that each student's abilities are properly developed.

How do we set goals? First, the group who sets the goals must answer these questions: Who are these students? Where do they come from? What are they like? What special problems do they have? What kind of world are they likely to live in when they leave school? The crystal ball may not give a sharp answer as to the world in which they will live, but each person who helps to set goals should know what the predictions are.

With this information, long-range goals may be developed. Or, in other words, the question, "Where do these students have to go?" may be answered.

The next step after setting the major goals is to develop the intermediate goals which

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are necessary to reach the major ones. Of course, funds are necessary to carry out improved programs but we cannot afford to delay the planning on the excuse that the funds are unavailable. An example is the long-range plans that have been developed for upgrading the dormitory-living program. For more than two years Education personnel have been developing standards for staffing the dormitories to do the job they knew needed to be done. The funds were not available when the goals were set. Prospects now look favorable and if funds are available in the next fiscal year, the carefully developed plans can be implemented without a long delay.

Implementing and Evaluating the Program

The long-range plans are made and the first intermediate step is taken. At this step, and as each subsequent step is undertaken, appraisal must be made. The long-range plans will determine the time and sequence of the intermediate plans. The secret of having time enough to develop and carry out good intervening plans is to keep long-range planning at least five years in advance of immediate needs.

Modifying the Plans

Long-range plans should not be so inflexible that they may not be modified to meet changing conditions. It is wise to revise the goals when research and evaluation dictate. Two years ago at their workshop, the school administrators were brought up sharply against the need to take stock of the vocational education offered in Bureau schools. This critical look was necessary because high school students are younger today and world conditions, especially the demands of the Nation's economy, are changing. These changes have created different needs that must be met through Bureau programs. Other changes, undoubtedly, will occur as man moves farther into the age of automation.

Over these two years, and as a result of much searching, some programs have been modified. Most of our schools have placed

greater emphasis on the use of English, especially the reading of English. Much good work has been done in strengthening the guidance program. When these educators meet in 1959, they will continue with the long-range planning now needed in the total education program to reach the ultimate goal of preparing Indian people to meet the demands for a changing world.

Providing the Leadership

The school administrator has the responsibility for mobilizing the resources of his staff for planning and performance of functions. As the leader he must provide the vision and insight necessary to give meaning and direction to the efforts of his staff. The extent to which such leadership is exercised will determine the speed and efficiency with which the goals will be reached.

2. PROGRESS IN DIRECTION

KEY EDUCATORS from the Bureau of Indian Affairs and tribal leaders from Indian groups with the greatest educational problems met together in a two-week workshop in June. The theme of this session was "Educational Leadership Is Our Responsibility." As these educators and tribal leaders deliberated, they weighed the progress that had been made in advancing education for Indian people since they last met in 1957. They made plans for immediate and for long-range improvement of the Bureau's education programs in relation to the specific needs of Indian people.

In the first session, the area directors and agency superintendents who were in attendance developed the concept that the inter-relationships of Bureau of Indian Affairs programs must bring about a singleness of purpose in advancing the total program for Indian people. These administrators agreed that no single area of endeavor is of greater importance than the cooperative relationships between Branches, Divisions, Areas,

and with Indian groups if there is to be successful achievement of the overall goals of the Bureau.

This discussion led into a study of relationships in the Branch of Education in which the responsibilities of the administrative and supervisory staffs were listed. A comparison of responsibilities was made in an effort to point up any duplication of these responsibilities. With the tremendous task of providing a sound education program, educators cannot afford duplication of efforts. The multiplicity of demands on the time of today's school administrative and supervisory staffs makes it essential for each individual to know how he can most effectively discharge his responsibilities—how he can best provide quality in the education programs at his level of operation.

A Look at the Education Programs

The members brought to the workshop pertinent information regarding their respective operations. This information made it possible for them to compile facts in three areas of the education program of vital importance in the advancement of Indian people today; namely, communication, vocational instruction, and guidance.

From the briefing sessions the indications are that each Area is emphasizing a reading improvement program. The members asked for stronger emphasis on teaching of all the communicative skills throughout the schools. Reports of Area plans indicate that improvement of communicative skills will continue to be one of the major objectives.

In weighing the vocational training program, the many facts presented pointed out that high school is not enough education for keeping pace in today's complex world; that a broad general education is needed, and that whenever possible technical training should be postponed until the post high school level; that the terminal vocational training which is offered should be reserved for the 11th and 12th grades; and that practical arts education should be emphasized in

high school more than vocational training.

Practical arts was defined as a type of functional education which provides learning experiences of value to all—leisure-time interests, creative expression, family living, manual skills, and the like. It includes training in homemaking, industrial and fine arts, and the business sciences in which occupational proficiency is not the major objective. Vocational education was described as the training which aims at developing skills, understandings, attitudes, and appreciations needed by individuals to enter employment on a productive basis.

A great deal of interest was shown in improving the guidance program, especially in the area of the home-living program in boarding school dormitories. The allocation of funds to upgrade the positions of the guidance and dormitory staffs brought about much discussion as to the qualification standards for these positions to assure the Branch of recruiting personnel who can provide "a home away from home" for Indian children and youth who must make many kinds of adjustments. The personnel essential in the home-living program must have a genuine liking for and an acceptance of children as they are and not as the staff thinks they should be. Other qualifications are important, but this is basal.

It was the belief that extended inservice education for dormitory program personnel is imperative, and plans are being made to extend the present training.

Who is involved in the guidance program? Everyone: teachers, department heads, dormitory personnel, principals, superintendents, cooks, bus drivers. The regular guidance program must be staffed by professionally trained personnel who will coordinate the guidance activities of all other departments.

It was evident that the challenge before each and every member present was to provide the very best environment possible for Indian children to learn and to live. The

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definite plans made by Area groups during the second week showed an acceptance of the challenge.

Indian Leaders Participate

Seventeen Indian leaders participated in all the deliberations. Their concerns were how tribal education committees could help to keep Indian people informed and to involve them in education to the extent that they accept their rightful responsibilities in planning, supporting, and executing education programs.

The objective "to keep educational planning realistic in terms of Indian needs" gave these leaders opportunities to contribute as resource people, as discussion leaders or group members, and as reporters. As a result, ideas were tempered by Indian thought; discussions were guided and kept in tune with big educational needs of Indian people today.

3. LEADERSHIP'S CHALLENGING RESPONSIBILITIES

ADMINISTRATORS in Indian schools and staff supervisors both hold responsible positions of leadership. How to make their leadership effective in the development of an educational program for Indian children is one of the most challenging phases of their leadership.

Both the administrator and the staff supervisor have supervisory responsibilities. The school administrator has the immediate responsibility for the supervision of his program and his staff. Beside him however, stands the staff supervisor ready to pool her technical skills with his, to work cooperatively with the school staff toward individual and group improvement. The school administrator who fails to take advantage of the technical supervising assistance available to him is not only shortchanging his staff, but is also denying himself

opportunities for additional professional growth. By the same token, the staff supervisor should not assume an all-possessive role in the field of educational techniques. The administrator and the supervisor are more effective as a team than either could possibly be alone—assuming, of course, that both work in an atmosphere of cooperation in which the supervisory goals of each become the common goals of both, and assuming further that both have basic understandings of effective methods of supervision.

What are some of the supervising goals the pair shculd hold in common, and what are some of the methods of supervision recognized by both as effective?

Both are concerned with promoting staff morale. This goal is best achieved by recognizing that staff members are human, that they respond in exactly the same way as the administrators and the supervisors to appreciation of their worth to the program, and further that speaking well-chosen and sincere words of praise at precisely the right moment is one of the best morale tonics on the market. Being alert to breeding staff friction, studying the causes, and removing the circumstance, if possible, give real meaning in the field of morale to the adage "An ounce of prevention is worth a pound of cure." We further challenge educational leaders in Indian schools by the wager that if this time-worn adage were made a rule-of-thumb through alertness to morale problems a-borning, 95 percent of the friction which later develops into serious personnel problems could be avoided.

Both administrators and supervisors are concerned with professional growth and performance improvement of staff. This requires that they work with the employees who are not fully prepared for work with Indian children; that they work with the dyed-in-the-wool employee who has his feet set against changes of any kind; that they work with the experimental employee who is leading off in all directions at once; and that

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they work with the creative employee who knows his work, and is sufficiently mature in his profession that he can accept new ideas and put them effectively to work. All of these employees are capable of growth, given effective and supervisory leadership.

New teachers to the Bureau, especially those with previous years of successful experience, often find that former methods of teaching are relatively ineffective when applied to children with language handicaps. This often creates a sense of insecurity and frustration, which even the employee himself fails to recognize. He senses his failure to achieve results, but through failure to analyze the causes and to seek expert help, he projects his frustration into external causes: the educational program of the school, the methods of the supervisor, or he may even go so far as to assume lack of intelligence and ability on the part of the children. The administrator and the supervisor must possess sympathetic understanding of the problems of this employee, and be alert to the opportune moment to establish supervising rapport with him—a rule-of-thumb, a full measure of understanding, and make haste slowly to change techniques. Change them, yes, but change them gradually by building on to the workable in the old. Remember supervision is developmental—not revolutionary.

Through the same type of understanding which recognizes the individual differences in employees, through careful analysis of employee difficulties, and through patient efforts to make employee and supervision goals one and the same, all except the most perverse can be welded into a growing and functioning group, with group purposes and group satisfactions.

Responsibilities of administrators and supervisors are challenging; compensations are great; and the dividends of effective leadership are a live school program, children actively learning, and a happy staff.

4. THE TEACHER'S ROLE

THE TEACHER is a key figure in any educational program. Her role is one of influence in the lives of the children and youth she teaches. Her functions are many as she directs her efforts toward helping children acquire understandings, competencies, and values deemed necessary to live and achieve in our society, or as we sometimes say, "live the American way."

The teacher of Indian children and youth has a significant role of influence as she directs her efforts toward assisting these individuals to develop into competent, mature, and well-adjusted citizens. The role is different in that her responsibility is to a group of people who are in transition from their own culture to a new and more complex one. It is this phase of the teacher's role we discuss in this article.

Generally speaking, when Indian children enter a Bureau school they come from unacculturated home backgrounds. (Over 82% of the enrollment in Federal schools are full bloods.) Each child brings certain behavior patterns and a set of values which he has learned from members of his family and community, and which has served him satisfactorily in his own way of life. These children enter school and begin a journey into a new and strange society where some of their behavior and values may be different from what is expected of them at school. The teacher's prime responsibility is to help them adjust to ways that are new and strange to them.

The heritage of two cultural systems must be merged into one system of values, and merged in such a way that each individual can use what he learns in solving his present and future problems. The teacher then becomes an interpreter and guide for Indian children in this merging process.

The teacher who expects to interpret a new and different culture to Indian youth

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must know much of the culture children bring to school with them. In addition, she must be able to interpret to Indian children the values of non-Indian culture that are of importance to them. When conflicts and confusions occur as individuals strive to bridge two cultures, the teacher must be able, from her knowledge of both cultures, to help clarify and reconcile the differences which may be confusing to them. Therefore the teacher plays a twofold role, that of interpreter as well as instructor.

The teacher carries out her role of interpreter of culture through the classroom experiences she provides for Indian children. She is responsible for fashioning from the knowledge and help available to her, an instructional program that will be meaningful to Indian children and which will extend their experiences beyond the limitations of their own background.

No individual teacher can possibly carry out this great responsibility without drawing on the experiences of others. Fortunately, the Bureau of Indian Affairs teacher has several sources of help to which she can turn. The Bureau has curriculum guides that represent the combined experience of many outstanding teachers and supervisors who have worked with the problem of Indian education over a number of years. Help is provided through articles published in **Indian Education**. Specific attention is called to Dr. Ben Reifel's article entitled "Cultural Factors in Social Adjustment." (See table of contents.) Each teacher in the Bureau should have in her possession or should have access to **Education for Action** and **Education for Cultural Change**, a compilation of selected **Indian Education** articles of earlier years. The teacher also has the opportunity to extend her knowledge of the Indian group whose children she teaches by exploring the available materials on their particular culture. Department heads, principals, and educational supervisors are helpers. Together

with the teacher they plan the instructional program she carries out, and they help the teacher evaluate the effectiveness of her program. Teachers should seek out and make use of this help that surrounds them.

The importance of Indian parents as a source of help to teachers should never be overlooked. Their ideas with respect to the educational needs of their children should also be sought and used.

The work of a teacher of Indian children is built into the personality and the character of each child she teaches. If she provides the experience individual Indian children need, in a classroom atmosphere that promotes self-confidence, self-respect, and a faith in individual ability and worth, Indian character in the future will remain strong.

In final analysis, the teacher's role is to help each Indian child to identify, clarify, and forge the values of both cultures into a philosophy of life that will guide and give stability to his actions. In the process the successful teacher develops pride in the child's own Indian heritage, and helps him preserve and use Indian cultural values as a firm foundation upon which to build his own personal value system. He is then equipped with a set of personal standards to guide him in meeting the problems of life.

Although the teacher is concerned with transmitting knowledge and developing skills, she renders her greatest service to Indian youth through the influence she has on the development of personality and character. The total effectiveness of a teacher is measured not in a day, not in a year, but in generations. That fact gives importance to her role and a challenge to her work. It is said that "old soldiers never die; they just fade away." Teachers, too, never die, but neither do they fade away; they live on in the lives of those they have taught. Could anyone hope to aspire to a better place in the sun?

5. RESPONSIBILITY FOR EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM

THE ROLE of principals in non-departmentalized schools and of department heads and principal-teachers in Bureau schools is discussed collectively in this article since these employees have many responsibilities in common. The role of this group is unique in that the incumbent of each position has been delegated line responsibility for the operation of a particular school or a department, and as a line officer, he holds a key position in which he can influence on a day-to-day basis the content and quality of the educational program provided for a segment of the Nation's most precious asset—its younger citizens. Along with the teacher, this group of employees has the very special privilege of working with the educational program at the grass roots. By working firsthand with teachers to improve the instructional program, it guides year by year the development of some 40,000 young Indian citizens and influences to an appreciable extent their future destinies. What then can be more important to the Nation, the Bureau, or most of all, the Indian children themselves than the role of the principal, the department head, or the principal-teacher?

Scope of Responsibility

By the very nature of their positions, these school officials are concerned with organization, scheduling, budgeting, community and public relations, personnel administration, transportation, care of property and grounds, health and safety, feeding, and the like as they pertain to their local school. These areas of responsibility are important and cannot be neglected since they clear the way for the line officers to perform a paramount role, that of providing effective educational leadership for the school or the department, as the case may be. And here, a word of caution to these workers seems appropriate: they must be ever alert, ever on guard or these other matters will divert a dispropor-

tionate share of their time from their paramount role, instructional leadership. This happens occasionally and unless local school officials work consistently to forestall it, they may find they have unintentionally shifted this major responsibility to a master teacher, an education specialist, or neglected it completely. This, in essence, would be leadership in reverse since these other activities are conducted to promote the educational program, not to detract from its adequacy. As one Bureau educator remarked, "Frequently, I become so enmeshed with the day-to-day happenings related to the physical care of the building, personnel problems, community demands, cafeteria operation, and other matters that I find myself devoting all my time to them and neglecting the instructional program, the phase of the program for which I prepared myself in college and in which I have the greatest interest. I sometimes lose sight of the first responsibility of the school—the education of children."

With this thought in mind as the new school year gets underway, each principal in a non-departmentalized school, each department head, and each principal-teacher may profitably consider two questions: (a) what is his role in instructional leadership, and (b) how can he plan his work so that time will be made available for it.

Instructional Leadership

How do these local line officials function in the role of instructional leadership? One function is to set the tone for the operation of the entire school program. Since the tone expresses the beliefs of the person in charge and what he stands for in education, it should be of high quality. It is a portrait of all the intangibles which cannot be measured by tests or in terms of dollars and cents: the morale of students and staff, whether it is high or low; their optimism; their feeling of progress; their goals and aspirations and the enthusiasm or the lack of enthusiasm with which they work toward them. It is an

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expression of partnership and oneness of purpose on the part of students, staff, and community; or the reverse. The tone may be monotonous or hesitant and indistinct; it may be positive and vibrant and sure. It may even be so intriguing that everyone will want to work wholeheartedly to preserve its high quality.

Once the tone is set and plans and goals and standards for the year have been developed and agreed upon, the person in charge is off to a good start and can direct his attention to other aspects of his role. He keeps in constant touch with the instructional program to make sure that it is meeting the needs of the students and to assure himself that education, the commodity or stock in trade which the school has to give its young citizens, is not neglected, delayed, or withheld. He works consistently to provide a favorable climate and a wealth of materials that will promote an instructional program of high quality. He protects the program from interruptions and diversions by activities of lesser importance. He interprets it to the community and to visitors and defends it from unfair criticism, if necessary.

The line officer in charge of a school or a department makes provision for the professional growth of his staff. If lack of time prevents his giving individuals as much help as they require, he makes even greater effort to conduct staff meetings which provide professional and technical help. He seeks opportunities for teachers to observe the work of master teachers. He requests the services of education specialists. He encourages the attendance of teachers at colleges, workshops, and conferences. He brings to the attention of his staff new professional materials. He makes sure his teachers know how to use the Minimum Essential Goals and other teaching guides; that they are acquainted with Bureau publications; and he provides opportunities for them to read and study the educational sections of the Indian Affairs Manual. As head of the school or department, he cannot delegate these responsibili-

ties to another staff member or leave them to chance if he wishes faithfully to carry out his role in instructional leadership. He cannot lose sight of his obligation to determine the strengths and weaknesses of the individual members of his staff, or to make the best use of their skills and talents.

The good line officer makes provision for his own professional growth. He studies his community, its history, its resources, human and natural, its pulse and its tempo so that the school can truly serve its students through a curriculum based on the life of the community. Through reading and attendance at meetings he keeps abreast of what is happening elsewhere in education so that he can bring the latest information to his busy staff for discussion.

But, the job of the busy line officer is not ended until he has evaluated the program with his staff and the community. He may plan, set standards, develop goals and procedures; he may set the tone for the operation of the school; and he may provide for his staff's and his own professional growth, but there still remains the responsibility for evaluating the year's progress toward established goals. He and his staff and the community will want to study all the major happenings to determine their favorable or unfavorable effect on the students and the community, and to determine the problem areas and find ways to improve them. They will want to take an inventory of the program's strengths and weaknesses so that they can set their sights for the coming year. This activity is of vital importance if the year's cycle is to be satisfactorily completed.

Organizing School Operations

How can the head of each school plan his work so that instructional leadership will not be neglected? Good organization and good planning, when accomplished cooperatively by line officer, staff, and community, help immeasurably to cut down the interruptions which are made on the line officer's time after school begins. He can establish office

hours, some during, others after school hours, when he will be available for conferences and gain acceptance of these hours by staff, students, and parents who are usually eager to cooperate when they know the reasons for keeping a schedule. He can plan more carefully his daily and weekly work schedule so that first things will be given priority. He gets a different perspective when his many activities are listed and the time he has devoted to them can be looked at on the written page.

Careful pretraining and planned inservice training of clerical and custodial help, bus drivers, and other ancillary employees pay big dividends. When these employees know what to do and when and how to perform their duties, less time is required to check their work and evaluate their performance. Frequently, if they have had good pretraining, they require only a minimum of supervision; only the amount that will assure both administrator and workers that their work is satisfactory or better.

The school line officer may delegate certain phases of his responsibility to members of his staff provided he retains the most important ones. This requires careful selection and the development of understanding with the staff members that the added responsibility they are assuming provides the line officer an opportunity to determine their interests, and their ability and willingness to accept responsibility. Often a responsibility can be delegated among staff members on a rotating basis or to a committee.

Students also can assume certain out-of-school duties which will relieve the school line officer of some responsibilities and be educational for the student as well. Parents, too, like to assume obligation for some of the school's activities. A well organized and adequately informed PTA, if properly utilized, can well be the school official's right arm and helper.

Rewards

The role of school line officer is a difficult one; one that requires patience, understand-

ing, perseverance, devotion to duty, and a desire to serve. The rewards? . . . the joy of seeing Indian boys and girls advance successfully and happily toward well-chosen goals, and the satisfaction of knowing that you (the principal, department head, or principal-teacher) played an important role in that achievement.

6. THE ROLE OF THE EDUCATION SPECIALIST*

AN ORGANIZATION as large and dispersed as the Bureau of Indian Affairs must maintain considerable formality in order to achieve its goals. Structure is necessary. Responsibility must be clearly defined and authority delegated. Each employee must be familiar not only with the structure of the organization but also he must understand his place in the organization. He must know what his particular share of the work is, how to perform his share of the work, and how his work relates to the work of others in the organization.

We in the Bureau of Indian Affairs work within a line and staff structure. Some employees have line responsibility; others have staff responsibility, but each has a specific share of the total Bureau responsibility and appropriate authority to carry out his specific share. Each component share is important to the total program whether it is a line responsibility or a staff responsibility. Further, program efficiency and strength depends upon the teamwork that exists between line and staff officials at all levels.

In the Branch of Education, department heads, school principals, school superintendents, and reservation principals are line officials responsible to a higher line official for the total program performance under their respective administration. This responsibility includes responsibility for maintaining technical aspects of the program as well as performing the administrative functions. Therefore, line officers in the Branch of Education

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have the overall responsibility for supervision of the instructional program under their administration. For example, the department head or the principal or the reservation principal has certain administrative responsibility for preparing budget estimates, providing materials and equipment, reporting, etc.; but in the final analysis the most important responsibility of these line officials is maintaining an educational program of high quality in keeping with the needs of the students the program serves. A line official carries out his responsibility for maintaining a program of high quality through the work of employees on his staff. He delegates certain of his responsibility for program to others; therefore he must continually appraise the work of others to assure himself that the work is being carried on in accordance with established standards and sound educational principles.

If the organization provided for only line officials, the strength of a school program would be limited to the particular competency of the line official in charge. Regardless of his particular strength, no line official can be self-sufficient in all aspects of the instructional program; hence, the organization provides technical specialists to give technical strength and to broaden line performance. These education specialists do not work as a separate corps of workers; they work as one with the line officials. Together with line officials they compose an educational team, with each member of the team complementing the competency of the other. The Branch of Education, and in turn the Bureau of Indian Affairs, cannot achieve maximum strength unless both line and staff officials understand each other's function and seriously respect the competency of the other. They must work in such a way that each adds to, never detracts from, the strength of the other.

A staff officer does not have line authority over a program. He cannot give orders; a line official can, if the occasion demands it. On the other hand, a staff official has tech-

nical authority. It is his responsibility to appraise educational programs in terms of educational standards and practices, and advise line officials of his findings. If the quality of the program is in serious jeopardy, he has the further responsibility to see that his findings are not ignored. Although he has no line authority to see that his recommendations are put into practice, he does have responsibility, and the organization provides the procedures by which his recommendations can be reviewed by higher line authority. If the proper attitude of team cooperation prevails, rarely would it be necessary to use the procedures that are set up for invoking higher line authority.

The following illustrates a situation calling for attention of higher authority. Suppose a safety engineer (staff officer) found the condition of the boilers at a power plant dangerous to the safety of the operation, possibly endangering the lives of employees and children. He so advises the school administrator but the school administrator disagrees with the findings and ignores them. The safety engineer knows the boilers may explode unless something is done. He cannot, therefore, leave the matter with the school head. He not only has the technical authority, but he has serious responsibility for reporting the condition, through proper channels, to higher line authority to get the condition corrected. The same holds true when an education specialist finds instructional conditions that are seriously retarding the educational progress of children. If it is a matter of serious concern, the specialist has the authority and the responsibility for taking the matter again through proper channels to line authority at higher levels for a decision.

If there is proper understanding of how line and staff officials relate to each other, and if there prevails an attitude of teamwork in their relationship, the occasion for taking recommendations to higher levels would be rare. They are rare in our Bureau which is an indication that we have learned reasonably

well how to function in a line and staff organization so far as the horizontal relationship of line and staff is concerned.

There is one phase of the official relationship in our Bureau, however, which can be further improved. The phase to which I refer is how to relate ourselves upward and downward (vertically) in the organization. For example, what difference is there in the work of an education specialist (educational staff officer) located at the Area level, and an employee by the same title located at the agency level? Would either of them work directly with classroom teachers?

Technical supervision is provided by department heads in larger schools, and by education specialists at the reservation level where there is an agency position of education specialist. The department head or the agency education specialist, as the case may be, provides a face-to-face type supervision and help at the classroom level. Schools too small for department heads, or reservations without education specialists, of which there are many, must rely on special technical help from higher levels or get along with the technical help available from the local line officials. When technical help of the face-to-face type provided at the classroom level is given by a staff officer from a higher level in the organization, that individual steps out of his or her usual role and performs as a member of the local staff. For example, there are several reservations where day schools are operated. There is only a reservation principal to give technical assistance to teachers. He sees a need or a supervisor from the Area sees a need or the teachers themselves request special help. There is no local education specialist to give assistance, and the type of help needed is beyond the reservation principal. The Area supervisor may come in and give the individual teacher the help needed, but she gives it as a temporary member of the reservation principal's staff. She and the reservation principal must distinguish between this service she gives and her usual function and relation-

ship to him in her Area supervisory capacity.

As an education specialist on the Area staff she has broader responsibility. She is responsible to Area line officials for maintaining an educational program of high quality in all schools of the Area. She assists with policy interpretation, Area program planning, program appraisal in terms of acceptable educational standards and practices, Area inservice education to further professional improvement, and fact-gathering. She does not have a face-to-face supervisory relationship with teachers in classrooms (except as she may be called upon to fill in when special supervision is nonexistent at the local level). Although she is responsible to the line officials at the Area level for programs of high quality, nevertheless she must carry out that responsibility through a face-to-face relationship with agency and school educational personnel above the teacher level. While the department heads and the agency education specialists are teachers of teachers, the Area education specialist is a teacher of school superintendents, principals, department heads, and agency education specialists. She teaches them by interpreting policies and standards, by broadening their knowledge of curriculum and acceptable teaching techniques, by demonstrating good supervisory techniques, by relaying to them facts and information needed to strengthen program performance, and by assisting with all phases of inservice education for the Area. This describes her vertical relationship to employees at the school and agency level.

With respect to her relationships at the Area level, she advises her own Area supervisor of overall specific conditions and educational program needs of schools in the Area. She recommends Area plans in keeping with broad Bureau policy for the Area. She gathers facts and data that will provide a basis for program action. On the basis of her findings and experience in the Area, as well as her technical training, she often

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contributes to development of policies, procedures, and standards with servicewide application. Therefore, the work of an Area supervisor, because of her place in the organization, is of a broader nature than the work of the agency education specialist. Each, however, is equally important to the organization.

The same holds true of the education specialists at the Washington level. They are charged with providing technical assistance to line officers at the Washington Office level. They recommend overall servicewide objectives, plans, and standards; they recommend and interpret broad policies; they appraise and evaluate program performance at Area levels; they develop facts and collect data needed for program planning and evaluation; they provide inservice education for top educational staff. They often, temporarily upon special assignment, fill in technical gaps in Area staff but when doing so they and the Area should understand the role they are performing. For example, during the past four years, the Washington Office staff has provided the leadership in developing an overall set of evaluation standards that could be used by an Area staff team in evaluating school programs in the Area. Evaluation of local schools is an Area function, but in this case the Washington Office staff performed an Area staff role in developing an evaluation guide for Area use, in the development of which both Area and local school staffs participate. The team approach to evaluation was used and through Area and Washington Office staff participation the process was developed and demonstrated. The Washington Office was carrying out its leadership function of inservice education, but to continue to provide local school evaluation from the Washington Office level after the process has been sufficiently developed, demonstrated, and agreed upon would place the Washington Office in the position of assuming Area responsibility to the schools. (The next step for the Washington Office so far as evaluation is con-

cerned is to develop a guide for evaluating technical performance of the educational staff at Area levels. This too will require close participation and cooperation of Area and Washington Office staffs.)

In summary, this discussion has attempted to develop certain basic concepts such as: both line and staff responsibilities in an educational program are of equal importance to the maintenance of a strong educational program; teamwork is the hallmark of line and staff relationship; staff recommendations of a serious nature cannot be lightly passed over; face-to-face teacher supervision and appraisal of classroom work are a local responsibility; Area staff has a face-to-face supervisory responsibility for local and agency staffs above the teacher level (except when they are called upon to perform in the role of a nonexistent local specialist).

The survey of Bureau educational programs, commonly known as the Rapp Survey, conducted in 1955 by a departmental team, reported that "the field recognized the need for progressive, well-trained, professional and technical specialists to assist in the educational program," and in that report was recommended the two-level pattern of supervision. The Branch of Education has worked consistently toward bringing the technical staff in line with those recommendations. It is believed that in so doing the program has been greatly strengthened. This achievement is in our favor now that we along with educators everywhere are surrounded with the urgency for upgrading the quality of educational programs. Our problems with respect to emphasizing quality is more acute, however, since through our program we must help Indian people overcome a serious educational lag occasioned by language handicaps and lack of educational opportunity. The Bureau is fortunate in having a corps, even if inadequate in numbers, of highly efficient education specialists. In this race for higher skills, the greatest resources for help a line officer has are his counterparts, the education specialists. They will be his eyes

and ears on the lookout for current practices and trends; they will be his faithful advisers; they will be his partners, equally and genuinely interested in the best program possible for Indian children.

*Note: As the majority of Bureau personnel serving as education specialists are women, the feminine gender has been used in referring to incumbents of these positions in the above discussion.

7. THE ROLE OF THE SCHOOL ADMINISTRATOR

THIS DISCUSSION is one of a series on the role of people in the Branch of Education who are concerned with the instructional program for Indian children.

It deals with the responsibility of the school administrator whose multiplicity of tasks compels him to depend upon others to perform many of the duties for which he is held responsible. The principal or superintendent of a large departmentalized school and the reservation principal must administer satisfactory educational programs by working with and through other people. Unlike the principal, department head, or principal-teacher, the school administrator does not have close everyday contact with teachers, advisors, and students. He must rely on his team, to whom he has delegated responsibility, for that close relationship.

Essentially, the administrator's job is not so much knowing all the answers as it is in finding solutions to problems by working with other people. He cannot be expected to have a ready answer in all the many fields of operation one finds in a complex school system. Again, he must depend on his team to help him find the answers. An administrator in the Bureau of Indian Affairs also can look to education specialists (staff officers) to help him find answers to the problems he faces.

It has been said that the chief administrator's task in a large school system is the most difficult of any in the field of education. If the system which he administers is to

receive maximum benefits, the administrator must be a business manager as well as an educational leader. The same holds true with respect to Bureau schools. The school administrator must be a business manager, and government procedures require attention to many fiscal details; nevertheless, the most important phase of his work is leadership in the improvement of instruction. That is the phase of the manifold job I want to discuss here.

When the administrator looks at his areas of responsibility: staff personnel, pupil personnel, school plant, transportation, budget and finance, community leadership, instruction and curriculum development, feeding and housing of pupils, he is sometimes bewildered by the scope of the job. However, once the administrator conceives his job as being one of educational leadership, he can go about structuring his organization for professional performance. The more complex his job, the greater is the need for careful plans. Inadequate plans invariably lead to trouble. Expediency becomes a term he is familiar with, and unless he has masterfully organized his work, he is apt to find himself pulled from task to task by the pressures seemingly beyond his control. When this happens, the consequence is that he often yields to the strongest pressure which, in turn, may cause him to sacrifice his responsibility to give leadership to the instructional program. As leader of the instructional program he cannot yield to pressures which leave little or no time for vigorous attention to the kinds of education offered in his schools. He must organize resources for meeting the needs of the program; and like all other education employees he must evaluate the educational outcomes of the school program. He must know what is happening to the children.

The changes upon us in this space age—social, economic, and technical—stagger the imagination. The school administrator must be sensitive to these changes and ever alert to the effect these changes may have in

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the lives of people. He must continually study ways to make the school program meet the needs of Indian boys and girls. Not only must he be aware of the implications, but he is responsible for making his staff aware and for lifting its sights to see what must be done as it guides these boys and girls. The school program that has changed little in the last ten years is now far out of line with the needs of today's youth, particularly today's Indian youth.

The school superintendent in the Bureau of Indian Affairs must provide creative leadership. He knows instructional improvement is largely controlled by the importance which staff members attach to improvement, and the quality and extent of their involvement in the program. Morale and a spirit of teamwork constitute the power that makes the machinery of improvement run. The administrator is the moving force; he is the person who most effectively influences group activities toward goal setting and goal achievement. This responsibility he does not delegate. By his knowledge, encouragement, organization of resources, even by his very presence, he communicates to his staff his concern for the program.

The effective school superintendent makes sure that his staff understands policy; and further, that they are aware of basic standards and procedures that characterize a good school operation. He then provides the "vision" and expects his staff to pick up and carry on from there. He need not, nor can he, become involved in all of the details of school planning or the day-to-day operations. He sketches the framework—vision, policy, and standards—and then he keeps an eye on his overall operation to assure himself that the machinery is operating smoothly within the framework he has set.

High quality professional leadership is founded on the principle that first things must come first. For the school administrator, the quality of the instructional program for children comes first.

A hundred years ago Walt Whitman wrote a poem which says better than I can express it why the instructional program must have the personal leadership of the chief administrator. The poem "There Was a Child Went Forth" begins:

There was a child went forth
every day,
And the first object he look'd
upon, that object he became,
And that object became part of
him for the day, or a certain
part of the day,
Or for many years, or stretching
cycles of years."

As the poem continues, the poet enumerates the influences which became a part of the child that day and he concludes:

"These became a part of that child
who went forth every day,
And who now goes, and will
always go forth every day."

The poet did not list the school administrator but if he were writing today, when schools have been assigned more responsibility for what happens to children, I am sure that he would. With his keen insight as to what became part of the child, the poet would know that the leadership of the school administrator touches the life of each pupil in his school.

Every child in a school system does not look upon the administrator's face every day, but nevertheless his influence, his attitudes, his relationship with others, his daily activities, the effectiveness with which he performs his tasks reach every child and determine to a great extent what happens to him. The leadership the school administrator affords the people who do have direct contact with pupils becomes a part of these children. Thus the influence of the administrator is far-reaching into the lives of boys and girls, men and women; the influence of the administrator becomes a part of Indian children "for stretching cycles of years."

8. THAT IMPORTANT PERSON: THE SCHOOL PRINCIPAL

INCREASINGLY the school principal in Indian Bureau schools is being held accountable for the instructional program of the school. The education of children is the chief purpose for which the school was established, and the responsibility for its success or failure rests squarely upon his shoulders. He is the key person.

In the larger Bureau schools, teachers are responsible to department heads from whom they seek advice and help. Department heads are responsible to the principal for carrying out his policies and programs in their various departments. The principal is accountable to the superintendent. In some schools the principal is assisted by an academic head of elementary or secondary education or of the special program. In small schools the principal or principal-teacher is under the leadership of a reservation principal who is responsible to the reservation superintendent. The principal, however, is the person closest to the real operational program of the school. He may receive suggestions from general or special supervisors but the final carrying out of activities to improve the school is both his prerogative and obligation.

In the operation of any school there are many areas of endeavor which demand time, personnel, and money. It is primarily left up to the principal to decide the relative merit of each one of these. Whether or not they can be assigned to others to be done, whether they can be omitted, or which matter gets priority can be determined by the principal.

If the principal keeps in mind the importance of learning, he will evaluate other matters in terms of this. He will not assign teachers to tasks that require the neglect of teaching or the preparation for it. He will emphatically and repeatedly stress the importance of school attendance as children can not be taught well in absentia.

A few soul-searching questions can help

the principal check his values. He needs to ask himself questions such as these:

Do I allow the wheel that squeaks the loudest to get the most grease? Do I give supplies and extra privileges to employees who become unpleasant when their requests are not granted? Do I penalize them by giving no attention at all to their wishes?

Do I give teachers information directly, informally, and personally, or do they get it sub rosa or by written directive? Do I share results of meetings attended with the staff? Do I ask them for opinions or suggestions? If so, do I ever use them? Do I beset their plans with obstacles or do I discourage by faint praise?

Do I take credit for work done by subordinates without due credit to those who carried on or shared in the project? Am I merely democratic or am I really shirking responsibility when I assign a colossal task to those in a lower echelon not paid for that level of work? Am I jealous of the person above or below me in rank if he offers new ideas?

Am I more paper-minded than people-minded? Do I close up my desk when reports are finished, purchase orders processed, and official correspondence cleared up?

Do I show my interest in the classroom by stepping in for a few minutes even though time does not permit a longer visit? Can boys and girls ever find me for a chat? Can teachers?

Can I tell a visitor what, in general, is being taught in each classroom? Do I know when a new unit of work is begun? Do I observe children at work and play to help the teacher in dealing with them?

Do I reply to children's letters in kind? (I know that part of the value of these activities lies in the skills children acquire in oral and written language.) Do I feel I must make suggestions on every occasion or do I never offer any ideas for improvement?

The principal needs to look objectively at himself often, as do all others who work with children. There is no gainsaying the fact that the principal creates the general atmosphere

of the school. If he believes in the fullest growth and development of both teachers and pupils, he establishes a democratic organization and not an autocratic closed-door policy. He also sets a good example, solicits suggestions, he is openminded, he is able to retain a good staff, he reflects his values in his school budget, tries to supply teachers with needed materials, cooperates with the home, and he interprets the school objectives, needs, and activities to the community. He is a friend to children.

There is little that can not be accomplished if there is an understanding principal, warm-hearted teachers, and a purposeful curriculum in which children are vitally interested.

application, his scholastic record as revealed in the transcript of his college credits, his non-teaching experience, and the data given in the vouchers completed by references. For this reason the rating schedule was prepared in considerable detail, and also for this reason the Washington Office has recommended that local Boards of U.S. Civil Service examiners use this rating schedule as a guide in developing rating schedules in a collaboration with their local regular Civil Service offices for secondary teacher examinations. However, even with detailed guidelines to help him, the rater's own judgment is still the all-important factor in making the final evaluation of an applicant's total qualifications.

The need for exercising judgment does not end with the rating process, however. For, once the applicants' papers have been rated and their names placed in appropriate sequence on a register, the responsibility is passed on automatically to the person who must choose from among those candidates within reach for certification the one who seems best qualified for a particular position. We cannot overemphasize the importance of these two steps. Neither can we urge too strongly that they be carried out with deliberation and with the best judgment that can be brought to bear, for it is the teachers who carry out the children's educational program at the grass roots, and at the teaching level the highest quality staff obtainable is needed. And, it is this corps of professional workers who, in the future, must provide candidates for promotion to the higher-grade positions. Ultimately, it is conceivable that many who show potential and who serve in progressively responsible assignments will occupy the top jobs in education; and unless the best applicants are selected and employed there can be little assurance that fully qualified people will be available for promotion when vacancies occur in higher echelon positions.

This very clearly alerts us to a still further need—that of exercising judgment in the

9. THE IMPORTANCE OF JUDGMENT IN SELECTION OF EDUCATION PERSONNEL

THE IMPORTANT ROLE which a Board of U.S. Civil Service rating examiner's judgment plays in determining applicants' suitability for employment in the Bureau's teaching program is emphasized repeatedly in the Civil Service Rating Schedule for the new nationwide examination for elementary teachers. Throughout the schedule, which is used by Bureau employees who serve as board members, there are frequent references to judgment as the important factor in the rating process. By way of example, one pertinent paragraph reads, "In the last analysis, the final rating, including added points, is one to be based on a judgmental weighing of the relative value of one source of information against another, and the value of factors in relation to each other."

In developing the rating schedule the Civil Service Commission and the Washington Office Bureau personnel were very much aware of the need for providing criteria on which raters could base their evaluation of an applicant's answers to the supplemental questions, the information provided in his

selection of applicants for promotion to positions above the entrance level. And, in this connection, we have prepared for supervisors who have no specific outline to follow some suggestions to help them carry out their responsibility for selecting employees for promotion. At the risk of digressing somewhat from the main topic, we think it might be well for supervisors to keep in mind an implication that frequently goes hand-in-hand with promotion; namely, that the employee who has been selected for promotion believes, and rightfully so, that he is on his way up the promotional ladder. Consequently, the supervisor who recommends him, as well as the supervisor who selects him, for his first promotion should give serious thought to his qualities in terms of his suitability for the position to be filled, his growth potential and the likelihood of his qualifying for positions of even greater responsibility at some future time. By way of explanation, we believe it would be most unwise to recommend for an administrative position an employee who has shown no interest in or potential for administrative work. On the other hand, if the employee has demonstrated interest in and ability to carry out technical supervisory work he could be wholeheartedly recommended for such a position knowing that he has professional growth potential, and that with additional experience and college work he can prepare himself for still further promotions. Our suggestions for the supervisor who has responsibility for electing employees for promotion are as follows:

Suggestion I. Analyze the function or the objective of the unit in which the vacancy is located. Is it an elementary or secondary day school or a combination of these two where an educational program is the primary function? Is it in a boarding school where both an academic and a home-living and guidance program are involved? Or, is it in a dormitory where the home-living program is the main activity? Possibly it is in an Agency Office which administers a number of

schools. On the other hand, it may be in an Area Office where educational policies for a whole geographical area are formulated and funds are apportioned and from which top-level supervision is exercised. The supervisor may not feel that this is a necessary step, but in the long run, if he has a clear picture of the real function of the unit he will make a wiser selection.

Suggestion II. Analyze the specific role of the person who will be placed in the position. Will the new incumbent be in charge of an installation or a unit? If so, what stature should he have in order to represent the unit and the Bureau with dignity, poise, and competency at meetings, conferences, etc.? Will he function as an arm of another official in a two-man team such as principal-department head, superintendent-principal, reservation principal-education specialist, area director of schools-assistant area director of schools, or will he be one of several department heads each having the same status? Is the need for a person whose skills and talents and personality will complement the skills and talents and personality of another staff member? For example, is his supervisor a good administrator but not a skilled program planner? In other words, should the new person bring to the organization certain competencies which are needed but not now present in the organization? There should be a clear picture of the employee's role, and the supervisor who knows exactly where he expects the new employee to fit into the organization will be in a better position to make a selection.

Suggestion III. Analyze the duties the new person will be expected to perform. Here, the supervisor will want to give serious thought to the current position description and decide whether it actually describes the duties he wants the new person to perform, and whether the supervision he will receive and the supervision he will exercise are stated accurately. The supervisor may wish to incorporate some additional duties and to delete others. If this is the case, the position

description should be reviewed and reclassified before steps are taken to fill the position either through initial recruitment or under the Bureau Promotion Program. Then there will be no doubt regarding its propriety and grade allocation at the time of issuance of a promotion opportunity bulletin, if the promotion program medium is used. This is the blue print which the new employee will follow in carrying out his responsibilities and on which the supervisor will rate his performance. Therefore, careful thought should be given to its adequacy and clarity.

Suggestion IV. Prepare the promotional opportunity bulletin. When there is a vacancy in a position above the entrance level, the Branch of Personnel in the Area Office will take the initiative in preparing and circularizing the promotional opportunity bulletin, but the Branch will look to the supervisor to provide any special information that should go into the bulletin such as the conditions under which the employee will live and work, and any special requirements which the supervisor believes the incumbent should meet in order to carry out efficiently the duties of the position. This information is of the utmost importance and must be stated precisely to insure that the person selected will be qualified and capable of carrying out the duties of the specific position under consideration. If precisely worded it will accomplish the second objective—helping persons, who may be interested, and their supervisors, decide whether or not they fully meet the qualifications.

Suggestion V. Select the candidate who has the best overall qualifications for the position. It would be an interesting experiment to disregard the names of the certified applicants and then have the person making the selection evaluate them solely on their total qualifications as reflected in the official records and other documents available for review. If he is personally acquainted with all of the applicants and their work, the

supervisor could then weigh and reconcile his subjective evaluation and his objective appraisal and in this way use his very best judgment in making the final selection. This, of course, would be the ideal way to make the selection. Sometimes, however, the supervisor may be acquainted with some of the candidates and not with others and he is faced with the situation where he may have to make a choice between someone whom he knows and likes, although by evaluation and experience he may not be the best qualified, and someone he does not know but whose folder and supervisory ratings indicate that he is highly qualified. Sometimes he may have the happy experience of finding out that the person who has the best professional qualifications is someone he knows and with whom he enjoys working. In filling top-echelon positions, personal interviews with the highest qualified candidates can be justified, if deemed necessary. To the greatest extent possible, the final decision should be made on the basis of which applicant appears to be best qualified to make the greatest contribution to the students' overall program through his performance in the position. If it is made on this basis and the supervisor has used his best judgment in making it, there should be little need to worry. By now the reader has probably said to himself, "This is a lot of work." "This takes a lot of time." And this is true, but it will pay big dividends if in the end the supervisor finds a really fine person for his vacancy. He will have on his staff a person who will seek and profit by orientation and supervision; a person who will bring industry, reliability, dependability, integrity, loyalty, creativity, dignity, professional competency, and all the qualities he could hope for to the program; a person who will love and enjoy children, and working with others, will go the extra mile or miles required to provide the students with a high quality program. This supervisor will have a team member of worth.

4

RESEARCH IN INDIAN EDUCATION

1. WHY DO INDIANS QUIT SCHOOL?

THE DROPOUT RATE among Indian school children has been reported as extremely high. This is true in Montana, in Oklahoma, in the Southwest—in fact, just about everywhere that there are Indians.

Visits to schools in various parts of the country reveal that dropouts among Indian youngsters begin to take on serious proportions as early as the fifth and sixth grades. In some regions relatively few Indian children even cross the bridge from elementary into secondary school. Of those who do make the grade, reports indicate that on a national basis fully 60 percent of Indian high school youths drop by the wayside before graduation. Again, at the college level, the surviving trickle suffers a high rate of academic mortality in the freshman and sophomore years.

In days gone by, not too much concern was given to this matter. There was a great shortage of school seats, anyway, for Indian children. And lack of Indian parental interest in education of their children was common.

In 1958-59, however, of 144,069 Indian children of ages 6 to 18 enumerated in the United States and Alaska, only 8,963 were reported as not enrolled in some school, with an additional 3,179 on whom no information was available. Today of those actually enrolled in school more than twice as many are in public schools as in Federal schools. Less than one in three attends a Federal day or boarding school.

Now that more Indians can go to school, the problem of dropouts casts its long shadow over the Nation's future. Various vague

reasons are widely given for the failure of schools to hold the Indian child. Recent studies based upon analysis of standardized test results, however, give some basically important clues.

One of the earliest studies of this sort was conducted among natives of Alaska, published under the title, **Alaska Natives: A Survey of Their Sociological and Educational Status**, by H. Dewey Anderson and Walter Crosby Eells, Stanford University Press, 1935. A very wide assortment of achievement, intelligence, and special aptitude tests was administered to Eskimo, Aleut, and Indian children of Alaska.

It was reported that children of all three racial groups did best in spelling and fundamentals of arithmetic. Also, though coming to school with a known language handicap, these native children were up to grade and held their own in comparison with Stateside children, by the end of the second grade. This fact alone suggests good adaptability and intelligence. Indeed, these investigators found one Eskimo child who scored higher on an aptitude test than any non-Eskimo child had ever scored.

However, beyond the second grade, the Alaskan native children began to slip. By the sixth grade, median academic achievement, as compared with Stateside norms, was two or more grades below the published norms. Unfortunately, this was mistakenly attributed to generally low native intelligence.

In **The Indian Child Goes to School**, by Coombs, Kron, Collister, and Anderson, Bureau of Indian Affairs, 1958, an almost identical condition in regard to academic achievement was reported among Indian children in mission, Federal, and public

schools, among all tribes in all States. In that study, a total of 23,608 pupils was involved—58 percent being Indian and 42 percent being non-Indian pupils. The latter were mostly in rural public schools which are near Indian communities and which enroll Indians as well as non-Indians.

The complete battery of California Achievement Tests was given. There was this added observation: The medians of non-Indian children in many rural schools neighboring Indian communities also tend to fall progressively below published norms as the pupils advance in grade.

This situation is not solely an Indian problem. Some groups of non-Indian children have medians which fall increasingly below published norms as they advance in grade. The observation applies particularly to non-Indian children brought up in neighborhoods or regions where there are limited cultural enrichment opportunities. Interestingly, children of "educated" Indian parents compare more favorably with published norms and sometimes excel non-Indian classmates in the same school.

The writer has analyzed more recent standardized test results obtained in a large sampling of Indian children in public schools not included in the study by Coombs and associates. The test scores yielded observations similar to the Anderson-Eells study in Alaska in the 1930's and similar to the study by Coombs and associates of other Indian groups in the 1950's.

For example, the present writer finds that achievement medians of Indian children, regardless of language handicap, tend to be up to norm by the end of the second grade. Thereafter, more and more Indian children fall below published norms. By the end of the sixth grade, Indian achievement medians in the three R's tend to be two or more grades below published norms. Indian children do consistently best in spelling and fundamentals of arithmetic.

The data are increasingly conclusive that

white man's learning comes hard to Indians. In short, Indian children are flunking at a higher rate than other children do.

A flunking child becomes a disheartened child. A flunking child develops resentments toward school, toward adults, and toward the "white way" of living. He becomes emotionally disturbed and searches for satisfactions elsewhere. That delinquency, withdrawal from school, and eventual withdrawal from modern life are a disillusioning search only compounds the problems. It doesn't settle it.

Teachers take various well known but unsuccessful steps to reduce this academic failure. Children are kept after school. Special classes for remedial instruction are set up. Punishment, threats, and cajolery are used. Those who are behind academically lose certain "privileges," though this measure should often be more properly labeled as loss of "rights" important to children's total development. There is frequent discussion of hiring more truant officers to compel dropouts to return to the classroom. For the child to attend, yet still not understand, is self-defeating, however.

To get closer to the root of the problem, the question becomes: "Why do Indian children fail in school?" Why does a higher percentage of Indians have difficulty with academic subject matter than do children on whom the published norms are established?

The question almost shouts its own answer for it has long been known that Indian children don't understand many of the books that authors have prepared for a non-Indian reading public. Many Indian children simply have not had experience with post offices, banks, libraries, parks, and other things which appear in books.

Nonetheless, the question takes on new force and calls for a new hard look in the light of today's situation.

For example, teachers complain that Indian children can't read. The Indian child in a geography class may be studying about

oceans. Actually he has no difficulty in reading the words. He can sound them out, and spell them. He may even be fully able to use a dictionary and look up the meaning of ocean. Here he finds that an ocean is a "wide body of water."

Unfortunately, the widest water he has actually seen may be a wash or an arroyo when it is running after a rain. Or an irrigation ditch. His limited experience with what is "wide" throws him completely off. This is reported by geography teachers as a lack of sense of distance and time on the part of Indian pupils.

Or the Indian pupil may read an arithmetic reasoning problem about the cost of a house and a lot. Arithmetic teachers observe that Indian children do all right in fundamentals of arithmetic but can't cope with reasoning problems. In a problem like this one, not knowing whether to add or subtract, the pupil asks: "What is a lot?" The dictionary only confuses him. There are lots of things; one draws lots in a lottery; children in a town sometimes walk cross-lots. This he has never done, though he knows he has had a hard lot in life. What does it all mean to him?

It is extremely difficult to explain the particular meaning of lot to an Indian child who lives on an open range. He has had no experience with the fact that non-Indians divide land into little parcels on a real estate division and call them "lots." The school expects the child to know such "ordinary" things by virtue of his out-of-school experiences.

This difficulty is even more striking in literature. "Indian children don't show emotional response to literature," teachers complain, often crediting misleading lack of emotion to Indian stoicism.

For example, storybooks are written to make the reader feel gay or sad. To achieve the author's intended effect, story situations involve typical modern American experiences, like love in a hammock. The Indian

child neither weeps nor laughs simply because the Indian child does not know what is a hammock. And the school is certainly not going to teach him about love in one! So the Indian pupil misses the whole point of the story.

To sum it all up, there is a kind of out-of-school or prior experience upon which academic success depends—particularly as subject matter becomes more complex and abstract. In the modern home a child has an abundance of toys. There is a TV which he can turn on or off. He has access to tools to take clocks and radios apart and to make things as he gets older. He goes on shopping trips with his mother; observes people in restaurants, bus stations, and motels. Altogether, he gets a tremendous variety of direct experience. Hence overnight, day after day, in his out-of-school hours the progressive child moves ahead of the isolated or otherwise restricted child. He gets a basic kind of homework.

That varied and rich out-of-school experience in home and community is prerequisite to academic success is evidenced in professional studies of functional reading and in the literature on child development. There is a growing body of data indicating that much of a modern child's education takes place out of school. However, there are subtle socioeconomic factors operating in areas which are geographically or socially isolated from the main streams of modern American life. Thus, there are significant regional differences in children's out-of-school experiences regardless of race. In the case of Indian children, a higher percentage lives in socioeconomic backwaters.

The problem appears to be one, therefore, of how to help home and community to give the Indian child experiences somewhat akin to children in general. One historical technique was to remove the child from the home and community by placing him in a boarding school generally removed from Indian neighborhoods. The data indicate that

this technique does not yield the desirable academic results. Perhaps one reason is that institutions such as boarding schools tend to be restrictive and protective. Further, removal of the child from home deletes the opportunity for essential child-parent ties.

The problem is complicated further by the fact that many Indian homes and most Indian communities themselves have problems on which outside help and leadership are needed.

So, we come face to face with the problem of how can school and the larger society fill the gap in home and local community. What can be done about it? What can YOU do? Not until the problem is more widely recognized, and not until more minds begin to accept the challenge, will new directions begin to be significantly probed.

The challenge calls for a more considered look at the curriculum and more vigorous efforts toward a community approach to education. There are many areas of living today which can be managed only on a community basis. Families working alone cannot meet the task. Hence, school faculties need a clear picture of life in an Indian community. School and community must be in more effective harmony.

There is also a serious social gap to close. Even where Indian children attend public schools in which non-Indian children are enrolled, they tend to remain apart socially. Coombs and Associates found, for example, that in mixed classrooms non-Indians tend to choose non-Indians for playmates and friends, and Indians tend to choose Indians.

The problem is easier to state than to correct, although it is becoming dramatically explicit and the sequence clear. Dropout rates from school are shockingly high among Indian youths. Academic failure is disturbingly high among Indian children. Withdrawing from school and academic failure are interrelated. Well-rounded life experiences in home and community must somehow be achieved for Indian children if they are to succeed better academically, and

want to stay in school longer.

This difficult problem poses a challenge to school boards, county school superintendents, agency administrators, and all educational leaders responsible for the longer strategy of educational leadership. New and improved ways of cooperation among those close to the problem are urgently needed, whether the schools of a particular Indian community are public, mission, or federally operated. The problem is urgent because it is growing worse, while Indians are on the increase and the world is on the move.

2. WHAT WE DON'T KNOW ABOUT INDIANS!

HERE IS A TREMENDOUS LACK of working data about almost every Indian tribe today and there is a tremendous need for research about Indians.

Research once was considered primarily a prerogative of the curious. Curiosity led inquisitive Newton to inquire why an apple falls to the ground. Everyone previously took the matter for granted. Unusual curiosity took practical-minded Benjamin Franklin out in a thunderstorm to fly a kite. Mathematically-curious Albert Einstein delved into pure theory regarding relativity, mass, and energy. At the time, this seemed almost ludicrously impractical.

In many fields, research has long served to satisfy a human urge to wild adventure. Thus, Columbus embarked upon a hazardous voyage to test a theory about the shape of the earth. Several centuries B.C., when eccentric Archimedes discovered the answer to the perplexing question about specific gravity of metals, he became so excited that he hopped out of his bath, publicly exclaiming, "Eureka, I have found it!" Moderns now get fantastic adventure by figuring out ways of going to the moon.

The serious fact is that research as a way of life has become standard operating procedure in big enterprise in America. Re-

search is basic to medicine. Basic to agriculture. Basic to manufacturing. Sales promotion. Practically every phase of commercial activity.

It has been reported in **Time Magazine** that over five billion dollars is spent annually in the United States on research. This is a larger yearly investment for such purpose than was spent altogether in the first 150 years following the founding of our country. Certainly, neither mere idle curiosity nor sheer joy in adventure lies behind research getting a big bite out of annual budgets in business today.

Such a huge sum is good evidence that research pays. Research makes predictable action possible. Pertinent facts take the guesswork out of program-making and administrative actions. In the case of the Indian problem, however, there is an appalling dearth of data.

In view of the many years of dealing with the baffling problem of incorporating the Indian into our society, there should be available a large body of germane data on every Indian tribe. Many facts are needed which would be useful to administrators, professional workers, and to the general public in working with a particular group of Indians. True, one can find published, in one source or another, some facts about every reservation—like average rainfall, length of growing season, dates of first frost, crops raised, and number of livestock owned. Sometimes, extent of mineral deposits is known on Indian lands. In published reports is listed the total number of acres of Indian land held in trust for any particular tribe. Still, the body of available physical facts on file is rather limited, and not always reliably established.

It is next to impossible to run down reliable data about the nature of the Indian himself. This is a serious handicap, for problems of Indians are essentially human problems. Without reliable, comprehensive data, the Government plays a sort of blind game of Truth or Consequences—not knowing the

truth, paying the consequences! The consequence, of course, is that policies governing relationships of the dominant society with Indians suffer confusion. Futile and wrong goals get established. Programs go by default.

No one can speak with assurance about the ABC's of moving Arapaho, Blackfeet, Crow, and other tribes rapidly forward on their contemporary problems. What procedures now being pursued are probably doomed to another round of failure?

Precisely what is at the root of the Indian problem? What elements of Indianness does a particular tribe still retain?

The following quotation from a public address concerning the Indian problem in Canada is pertinent:

"The assumption by a majority that it knows what is best for a minority whose culture it neither shares nor understands is the greatest tyranny of all. It is in the realm of understanding that modern social science can make its greatest contribution.

"We can no longer assume that we know what is best for the Indian without knowing what he thinks—or more important still, what makes him think as he does."*

Few big enterprises today would launch a new product—even as commonplace as soap—without determining in advance the best kind of wrapper to use, the most enticing color and aroma, and the most suitable words and music with which to put it over. By scientific methods it would delve in depth to determine what the housewife **really** wants. Is it really fewer dirty dishes? Cleaner necks? Or something much more romantic that can be associated with soap? Then, to be doubly sure, there would be continuous research in action. How do women use the soap in dishwashing? In laundering? In shampooing? On redheads; on blondes; on brunettes?

*W. J. Morris of the University of Toronto in an address entitled **Our Non-Vanishing Canadians**.

In the case of Indian affairs, there have been plenty of investigations and surveys. A superabundance of them. Unfortunately, from the scientific point of view, these have largely been compilations of opinion—of various degrees of expertness. It is unsound to pursue such a complex business either on the basis of opinion or prosaic "experience." There are too many situations in life when the phrase, "Experience has shown," is a shackling bit of mythology. Suppose the Wright brothers had settled for the view that "Experience has shown it to be impossible for man to fly!"

Perhaps the greatest unmet need today in Indian affairs is sustained, scientific social research. Can we not say, indeed, that to know more about the Indian is the very essence of the problem?

Many Fundamental Complexities Exist

In the realm of Indian affairs, there are too many fundamental perplexities of too long-standing. Because of perennial heat without light, much in Indian affairs has to be determined by bureaucratic or political guess rather than with scientific wisdom.

Take some of the questions underlying the problem of adequacy of Indian education: How adequate are educational facilities? How adequate is the present approach to Indian education? How adequate for youth? How adequate for adults? How adequate for Indian communities in the look ahead?

Prior questions immediately come to the fore. What is meant by "education"? The three R's for youth? Or something broader in the life of the tribe? Isn't law and order involved with education? Aren't forestry, irrigation, soil conservation, animal husbandry, health and welfare—all government activities—involved with education? What is the scope of Indian education? Who is responsible for it? What consideration needs to be given to social and economic status of a particular group of Indians for a complete educational program?

One can't get very far in such discussion

before he is faced with that recurrent problem of preservation of Indianness—the right to retain Indian culture. One practical matter to be faced, of course, is whether educational programs need to be adjusted to meet different tribal patterns. Do we know precisely how much of a Sioux an Oglala Sioux is today? How much of a Sioux is a Lower Brule Sioux now? How much of a Cherokee is a Carolina Cherokee? There are seemingly great differences between these. Just what are the differences?

The point is that issues of long-standing often cease to be issues when detailed data are ascertained. As in our reference earlier in this discussion to the Wright brothers, the issue of whether or not a heavier-than-air object will fly is quickly dispelled when the object is placed in a wind tunnel. Data frequently dissolve dilemmas.

Indian education is full of basic, unresolved issues. Aside from the matter of preservation of Indianness, there is the problem of uniqueness: What are the unique problems of Indian children from Papago homes? From Apache homes? From Arapaho homes?

There is the problem of withdrawal or transfer. By what criteria and under what circumstances are Indian students ready for successful transfer to public schools? Under what conditions are public schools ready for acceptance of Indian pupils? Can local governments assist Indians better than the Federal Government on social-economic goals of education? When are local governments ready for handling all Indian affairs?

There is the problem of adult education. What should be the scope and responsibility for Indian adult education? There is the problem of non-Indian attitudes. What should be the responsibility of the Federal Government in providing leadership for creating a more favorable public attitude regarding relationships with Indians? There is the problem of placement and followup.

What responsibility should the Federal Government have for graduates and drop-outs from schools? Why do representatives

of some tribes seemingly "give up" and return from relocation more rapidly than do others? Is it due to the wives? Or alcohol? All sorts of things? Can we leave it there? What readjustments in program are required?

These are just a few illustrations of some basic problems in Indian affairs which will continue to be emotionalized perplexities until a more intensive program of detailed fact-finding is launched, tribe-by-tribe.

Social-Economic Data Needed for Long-Range Educational Planning

Even the relatively simple matter of preparing plans for construction of new school facilities, for rehabilitation of existing facilities, and for financing future educational programs bogs down for lack of basic data. An exact count of the Indian population is often hard to come by. Without such a basic figure, it is impossible to project reliable rates of incidence on **anything**. In planning schools, it is necessary to know precisely how many Indian youths are to be served. Who are they? Where are they? What are their special needs? What kind of program will most effectively meet their needs?

We cannot blithely project past numbers, past goals, or past methods without re-examination of needs and results. What are current trends? What changes are taking place? Indians do change. Today's problems **can't** be exactly the same as was the case several decades ago!

If education is to improve social-economic conditions among a particular tribe of Indians, detailed and reliable data are needed as to what is the social-economic status of that particular Indian group. We need to know who, where, what, and how.

Specifically, we need to know their number. Their distribution by age. Their birth rates. Their trends of increase. We need to know where they are. What are their migration trends in search of work, food, and clothing? What is the permanence or stability of their place of residence? What are the social-economic effects of their migrations and seasonal employment?

We need to know what is the adequacy of their income. What is the distribution of income levels within the group? What are their sources of income, and in what amounts? We need to know how Indian income is spent. How adequate are the expenditures for food? For shelter? For clothing?

What are the levels of literacy and vocational competence? Adult educational needs and interests? To what kinds of work or working conditions do individuals of the group best adjust?

What are their present natural resources? Are they adequate? Are they fully used? Under-used? Fully developed? What are the Indian attitudes toward their resources?

We need data on the competence of family life. What is the situation regarding divorce, illegitimacy, child neglect, law and order? What are the problems of social acceptance by non-Indians of the region? What is the social organization of the group and how adequate is it for dealing with contemporary problems? What is the role of religion? The picture concerning group cohesiveness or internal conflict? In short, just what kind of people are we dealing with? How do they react to various measures?

Such types of data are sorely needed to describe the qualities of the raw material which we desire to process in the educational mill. Such data are needed to evaluate properly new enterprise on behalf of Indians.

In this age of research, definite allocations of funds for research are desirable. As a beginning, a little research on research might be stimulated. A series of symposiums on the subject of "problems in Indian affairs on which research would shed more light" would be highly revealing. This might be followed by careful Area study as to ways and means for seeking objective data. Of course, the pursuit of data would involve soliciting the cooperation of many non-federal sources of information. On many problems, outside technical competence would be

EDUCATION FOR CROSS-CULTURAL ENRICHMENT

required in fact-finding.

Colleges and universities within a given Area might be found to be in position to render assistance on certain specialized problems. Orderly distribution to colleges and universities of lists of problems on which research is desired might be well received. Graduate students are always looking for something worthwhile and practical as thesis topics. In some cases research services might be negotiated periodically by contract. An overall coordinating or directing organization and a central clearing house would merit consideration.

In the meanwhile, what might be done by local field workers concerning collecting of better data for better day-to-day operations?

Educational Research in Day-to-Day Operations

In the Branch of Education simple research on day-to-day school operations can be conducted fruitfully at the local level. For example, school personnel were invited to undertake a campaign of improving average daily attendance in Cherokee Agency schools. Readily available data revealed that the A.D.A. was running only 86 percent. Some of the reasons for absences were inquired into, suggested remedies were explored, and a corrective program launched.

Over a three-year period, data showed an increase in A.D.A. to 95 percent. To assure that the gain was more than coincidence, data compiled a year later showed a further increase to 97 percent. In this manner, results of the campaign were verified by objective data. The general methods used were compiled and published. We need more of this type of local research and the kind of creative thinking involved in it.

A good way to get started is for each department in each school to make it standard practice to launch one or more significant programs for research each year. Following are some illustrations of types of problems to be considered.

What is the proper capacity of your school? The extent of overcrowding in aca-

demic classrooms? In home economics laboratories? In vocational shops? In dormitories, if a boarding school? By what standards? What is the anticipated pupil load or enrollment in each of these facilities in another year? In another several years?

What are desirable budgetary amounts annually for replacement of equipment in classrooms? In laboratories and shops? Dormitories? Recreational? Dining?

How does your school rate in comparison with others on various features such as bus transportation, noonday lunches, finance, library facilities, gymnasium, science, shop-work, guidance, et cetera?

How do your pupils compare in academic achievement with Indians in other schools? Public schools? Mission schools? Other Federal schools for Indians? With non-Indians in schools throughout your State? With national norms? Grade by grade? Subject by subject?

What is the extent of retardation and overageness of pupils in your school? What are some of the causes? How might these be remedied?

What is the holding power of your school? The extent of dropouts? At what grade levels or age groups do dropouts increase? What are underlying reasons? How might this situation be improved?

What is the situation regarding the out-of-school Indian child? How many fail to enroll or fail to attend regularly? What is the attitude of the parents—what do they think about your school? What are the public attitudes? What might be undertaken, both immediate and long-range, toward improvement in attracting out-of-school Indian youths to attend school?

What are some of the personal problems of your students? Their worries and anxieties? Their ambitions and desires? Their vocational aptitudes? Their general capabilities? Their faults?

How adequate is your program in terms of special needs of Indian children in your Area? Specifically, what are the home activ-

ties of children who attend your school? The general home conditions? The economic status of the parents in terms of actual income? Health conditions? Value and type of home furnishings? Special health education needs? Special needs regarding morals and ethics? Use of money? Disabilities in speech, hearing, reading? Emotional handicaps? Attitudes toward non-Indians? Cleanliness and sanitation? Dietary habits? On what goals is special methodology needed?

What happens to graduates of your school regarding further education? Regarding wages and employment? Regarding home life, marriage, family stability, and other important aspects of living? In short, what problems do your graduates encounter and what weaknesses seem apparent in the product? What changes or innovations in program might be undertaken to improve the product?

Each school needs to prepare its own list of problems for study. Research at the local level will best be undertaken when the staff itself increasingly recognizes types of data needed for most efficient day-to-day operations. On many such problems, data can be gathered by local staffs rather readily without outside help.

At the Area level are problems of a more overall nature. For example, adequacy of finance, adequacy of organization and administrative framework. Staffing patterns, personnel turnover and causes, adequacy of plant and equipment, tribal and public attitudes over a wider geographic area, population forecasts, relative costs of operating dormitories versus building of necessary roads for day attendance by bus, types of schools best suited to the needs and status of Indians in the Area.

This is a very brief list of problems which impinge daily upon school operations. Where Area staffs are limited, and where day-to-day responsibilities prevent possibilities of organizing and conducting important research functions, a new look at research becomes essential.

In conclusion, what more fruitful in-service training experience could there be at all levels, by all activities, than an organized, long-range program of research?

3. WHAT WILL RESEARCH SAY?

ADMINISTRATORS who attended the 1955 summer workshop directed by the Branch of Education recommended that education budget preparation and education planning be based on agreed-upon standards. They further recommended that a committee with field representation be selected to finalize these educational standards. In accordance with these recommendations, the work of collecting information and the putting of standards of operation into written form was started by a committee at the Washington Office level in the fall of that same year. Much study and research have gone into this project. When the work is completed it should provide the basis for upgrading the care and instruction of Indian children.

The standards, once they are accepted, are to be used not only to check the effectiveness of school operations but also to determine the amount of money needed to bring the schools up to an acceptable level of operation. For ease of interpretation, the standards have been considered under four major headings of operation as follows: Administration of a Boarding School; Instructional Program; Guidance and Dormitory Operations; and Feeding Operations. These sections were further broken down into the staffing pattern for each department and the pertinent facilities appropriate to the needs of the students in a well-operated school. At all times the needs of the students were considered of primary importance in determining a standard.

One of the most pressing problems in Bureau boarding schools has been the staffing of the various departments with well

qualified employees and in sufficient numbers to provide adequate guidance and supervision for the student body. It has long been felt that additional staff was needed to meet objectives but this need was never reduced to a formula until work was started on the standards for operation of schools. The need for such a formula was augmented further by proposed regulations governing employment which would eliminate unpaid standby time for night duty in the dormitories, split shifts, and excessive overtime. In the past, many employees had an 8-hour tour of duty which covered 16-clock hours and during that time there were several split shifts which made it impossible for the employee to leave the campus even though off duty. A similar difficulty arose when there was no one on duty in the dormitory after the students retired. The employee who occupied living quarters in the dormitory was expected to care for any situation which needed attention during the night, even though the time was not considered as part of the working eight hours. This latter problem has been increased because in many schools sick children must be kept in the dormitory and usually they become the responsibility of the employee living there which entails extended night duties.

All of these factors were considered in working out a formula for the number of employees needed to provide adequate coverage for a dormitory building. In order to have one employee on duty at all times when students are in the building would require 3.6 employees. One employee on duty is not sufficient in a building housing 100 or more students, and with two or three floors, or with more than one wing, and for that reason the standards had to be set up to allow for additional employees to cover different situations. The level of responsibility of the various positions was also considered and included in the standards.

Similar studies were made to determine the number of employees needed for the staffing of other departments. The adminis-

trators had recommended that sufficient help be provided in kitchens and dining rooms in order to adjust students' kitchen assignments to their age and ability. They further recommended that sufficient clerical help be provided in order that the supervisory and guidance staffs be relieved of detail work so as to have more time for departmental improvement of services to children. Individual attention to children was considered to be of more importance than reports or other paper work that could be handled by clerical help.

After staffing standards were determined they were applied to schools of different sizes in order to determine what additional positions would be needed to bring the schools up to adequate standards. Shortages were found in each department, but as may be expected the greatest shortages were in the dormitories and the feeding departments. Before improvements can be made in these departments additional funds will be needed.

Standards also have been set up for supplies and equipment, based on the needs of students to have comfortable living and working areas. Overcrowded or poorly equipped dormitories contribute to behavior problems of students as well as inadequate or poorly trained staff. On the other hand, well-trained guidance personnel who have time for individual counseling and a suitable place to meet with a student can do much to give that student confidence and inner security. Adequate recreational staff together with equipment and supplies to be used during free time of the students will also help in their satisfactory adjustment to boarding school living.

After the first draft of the tentative standards was completed, copies were distributed to administrators at the Area and Agency levels for review and suggestions. Recommended revisions in the copies which were returned in the spring of 1956 showed that much time had been spent in reviewing the work of the committee. Suggestions were

made on additional factors that should be considered in determining the various staffing patterns. Additions also were made to lists of supplies and equipment needed to provide an atmosphere conducive to the best physical and emotional development of the students. Everyone was in agreement with the objectives of the standards; namely, that the welfare of the students was of paramount importance and that there was a need for adequate standards for group care.

All of the suggestions were reviewed carefully and the standards were revised in accordance with the recommendations. The only suggestions that were not considered were those that had implications for only one Area. The revised standards were duplicated in April 1957, and work copies have been issued to representative boarding schools selected by the area directors of schools. These are to be studied during the 1957-58 school year and suggestions for changes are to be forwarded to the Washington Office not later than April 1958.

The last step will be a careful review of all material submitted and revisions made where needed. When final approval is given, the standards will be used as a basis for program and budget planning of Bureau boarding schools.

4. ACTION RESEARCH: A WAY TO IMPROVE EDUCATION

A THESIS* by one of the staff members of Intermountain School illustrates how the encouragement of research can provide objective evidence in guiding improvement of educational programs.

This study was concerned with a followup inquiry among 60 Navajo young men in their first year of employment after graduation from the special programs at Inter-

mountain School. It was concerned with the following five general questions from the point of view of the graduates themselves:

1. What types of problems related to their jobs do they feel they had during their first year of employment?
2. What are the difficulties they feel they encountered in making social adjustments in the communities in which they located?
3. What do they recognize as important financial problems?
4. What are some other problems which they feel they had, related or otherwise, to the above areas?
5. In what ways do they feel their school training was inadequate in preparing them to enter the society in which they now live?

These graduates had been assisted by the school in finding jobs and the majority had been located in Los Angeles and Salt Lake City. Some 15 had been located in Denver, San Francisco, and other locations.

Job difficulties indicated by 25 percent or more of the group were (a) they lack skill in performing duties, (b) they do not understand labor unions, (c) they doubt the wisdom of vocational choices, and (d) they misunderstand directions.

It is interesting to note that 32 of the 60 boys were not working in the trade for which they had been trained. The author observes: "There is a definite indication that a boy who is working out of his vocation has doubts about the value of the training he has received." The study further emphasizes the importance of placing the boys in jobs for which they have been trained.

In the field of social adjustment, the four areas of particular concern as expressed by this group were (a) they lack knowledge about matters of sex, (b) they do not know procedures for marriage, (c) they lack conversational skills, and (d) they are awkward in meeting people.

Other problems indicated by a significant portion of the group were (a) they are easily

*Baker, Joe E. *Problems of Navajo Male Graduates of Intermountain School During Their First Year of Employment*. Master of Science Thesis, Utah State University, 1959

influenced to drink by someone offering liquor to them and do not know how to refuse without offending, (b) they do not know where to go find wholesome recreation, and (c) they have difficulty in saving and spending income wisely.

Asked to consider what they would like to learn if they could take their schooling over, the two most frequent responses were (a) to speak, read, and write English better, and (b) to acquire more skill and knowledge about their chosen vocation.

The author concludes that "the two factors contributing most to the subjects' feeling of inadequacy were (a) inability to speak, read, and write English, and (b) being placed on jobs for which they have not received technical training." He continues. "It is felt that the majority of the graduates studied were making a successful adjustment It is recommended that an evaluation be made of the effectiveness of the methods used in the teaching of English, vocational skills, sex, marriage, and other areas in which a high percentage of the subjects indicated problems.

"Since a large percentage of the subjects indicated lack of vocational skills due to placement out of their trade, it is recommended further that greater care and a concerted effort be made to place qualified graduates in their trades."

Other recommendations:

- "1. It would be of great value to have a similar study made of the female graduates to determine whether or not there is a similarity in the problems confronted by them.
- "2. A study of married and unmarried graduates could be made to determine the effect, if any, marriage has upon their adjustment and success.
- "3. A follow-up survey of the subjects of this study, or a similar group, could be made two or three years after graduation. This could be done to determine whether or not they have been successful in solving the problems mentioned

frequently in this study."

5. ACTION RESEARCH: CHANGING ATTITUDES

AN interesting project in action research is going on in one of the Bureau boarding schools which may be of interest to others. In this particular school, which for the time being will remain anonymous, the staff is testing out techniques to be used in furthering wholesome attitudes and habits of the students, or replacing negative attitudes and poor habits with more desirable ones. As stated, the purpose of the project in its present stage is to test out methods and techniques. However, the measure of success of the method is related directly to the degree of change produced in student attitudes and habits.

By way of background, it will be helpful to describe how this program came into being and what steps were taken to initiate it, before describing its present stage.

The project grew from a thoughtful question voiced by an Area Director who said, "How do we motivate Indian people and Indian students toward a better life at higher living standards when they themselves are not interested in such advancement?" This question challenged several people, and as time went on more and more people became involved in the challenge. We agreed that we would start at some school in the Area to see how we might go about motivating students to higher aspirations. The Area staff designated the school.

The Area Director, key people on his staff, the reservation principal, and the reservation educationist met with Washington Office representatives to determine the type of approach. We were concerned, especially that we did not let ourselves into the trap of crystallizing in our own minds a full-blown program that we would take to the school, and through either overt or covert methods impose it on the staff and students. There-

fore, initially we agreed that: (a) we would keep ourselves uncommitted to any program before involving many other people in its development, (b) we believed it was better to take a step at a time and measure progress and errors, thus to feel our way along as we got broader participation in the program.

The school was selected. In the first meeting with the key school staff, the question was re-asked and opinions solicited as to what principles one should apply in effecting change in human behavior and attitudes. In this initial meeting major ideas began to evolve, and a series of later meetings involved an ever-widening circle of school participants. The participants (by this time the school staff) tentatively committed themselves to the principle that change for the better could come about only if:

1. There is an awareness of the need to change by those concerned.
2. All those concerned with the problem are involved and participate in the solution.
3. There is a concerted, coordinated effort in solving the problem step-by-step.
4. The group concerned determines limited goals which can be attained.
5. There is continuity of effort.
6. The goals are set up and attacked in an orderly, systematic fashion.
7. Those concerned with the problem identify themselves with it and with others who are involved in its solution.
8. There is continued evaluation and followup.

They were ready now to test out this principle by selecting some aspect of pupil behavior or attitude which they believed needed changing in a majority of the student body. Again, with full participation, it was agreed that students needed help in making habitual certain courteous practices which are recognized as essential to get along well in modern society, e.g. pleasantly greeting friends and voicing such courtesies as thank you, please, etc. at appropriate times. Indian youth want to know other youth, to be friends with them, and to be accepted by

them as friends. They know how to be courteous within their own cultural setting. They need to extend their knowledge to the simple courtesies expected of youth in a non-Indian setting.

At this point the student council was involved in the process, and in keeping with the principle to which the staff had tentatively committed itself, one simple goal in courtesy teaching was undertaken each month. Everyone throughout the school concentrated on the teaching of this goal; the staff in the classrooms, the dormitories, the kitchen and dining room, etc. worked on its development whenever a situation presented an opportunity to do so.

The first goal selected was to greet others in a friendly manner. Before teaching started a survey was made by the visiting supervisor to observe to what extent the students greeted others. This visitor had been introduced to the students at an assembly period, therefore, they knew she was a visitor on their campus. In her initial visit in September, she reported that:

1. Generally, on the campus the youngsters would respond if she spoke to them first.
2. Off the campus, school children would be as likely not to answer as to respond to a greeting. (It is possible that all of the school children she met off campus were not from the community school.)
3. One Friday morning as she stood in the main hall of the high school building after a pep rally, only one high school girl volunteered a greeting to her, although more than half of the high school students had to walk in front of her. Since she was checking on how many would initiate a greeting, she did not speak first. With the exception of the one girl who greeted her, the others walked past her as if she were not there.
4. In the community, off the campus, she made a point of greeting every adult she met on the streets. Almost without exception, every older Indian responded

- with a friendly smile and a greeting similar to her own.
5. On the campus, she had to initiate the greeting to many of the employees.
 6. There were some employees on the campus who were frequently cordially greeted by many children.
 7. The younger children seemed more eager than the older children to greet some employees.
 8. As she became better acquainted with the student body and had more contacts with the students she observed that their greetings to her became more spontaneous and frequent on and off the campus.

The following April, the supervisor reported as follows:

"During my second visit to the campus I was greeted cordially so many times it almost wore me out returning the greetings. The students seemed to actually enjoy greeting others.

"Another phase of the program which the boys seemed to enjoy was opening and holding a door open for others to enter. I heard some remarks from teachers concerning this. During my first visit to the school, I hadn't observed a single boy holding a door for anyone else to pass through. I did observe several who let a door slam shut right in front of someone. But this time the picture was quite different. The boys would wait for others to catch up so that they might open a door for them.

"However, with some of the other phases of our plans there was little evidence to show that they had even been introduced. It was clear that we tried to accomplish too much, too quickly. The students were not sufficiently included in our planning. Our own principles were violated. We didn't follow all of the steps which we agreed were necessary to bring about successful change."

This 1960 school term the staff plans to do the following:

1. Review the steps which were agreed are essential to bring about change.

2. Incorporate those steps in future plans.
3. Limit itself to what it knows can be done.
Is this your school?

6. BEWARE THE "BOOBY TRAPS" OF TESTING

PROBABLY NOTHING more clearly typifies the attempt in American schools to inject elements of the scientific method into a profession that has traditionally been an art than the testing movement. Today the giving of intelligence and achievement tests is very widespread and, to a lesser extent, the use of tests of interest, aptitude, personality, and other traits.

In 1928 the Merriam Report chided the Bureau of Indian Affairs for not making "even the most elementary use—of either intelligence testing or objective tests of achievement in the types of knowledge and skills that are usually referred to as the 'regular school subjects'." Since those days we have climbed aboard the testing "bandwagon" in a big way. Now all of our boarding schools, and probably most of our day schools, give achievement tests at least.

As administrators, supervisors, and teachers, how well are we prepared to do this? Most teacher-training institutions require a course in "Tests and Measurements" at the undergraduate level. Often, we are afraid, this course is not very attractive to education students and is viewed by them as something to be "got through with." Few of them go back for a second helping. And so, often with inadequate training and imperfect understanding, we set forth to apply the devices and techniques of objective measurement to that most intricate of all mechanisms, the human mind. It is the opinion of the writer that there is an appalling gap between the level to which educational measurement has been developed by the experts and the functional grasp of it by the basic practitioners of education, the classroom teachers.

The test publishers know this to be true. They are undoubtedly sincerely interested in making a sound contribution to the educational process, but they have to make an honest dollar too, if they can. So they try to keep everything as "simple" as possible. Sometimes this does not work very well in trying to do a job which just isn't simple in its nature. Of course, the administering, scoring, and profiling of tests and test scores is not very difficult. Any teacher who has a decent respect for accuracy, patience with detail, and the willingness to familiarize herself with instructions can get along with this very well. But where does one go from there? The drawing of valid conclusions about a child's school achievement or mental ability calls for professional skill of a much higher order.

While a teacher's subjective evaluation of a pupil's progress in school is necessary and valuable, it is hardly ever as valid or reliable as the teacher would like to believe. Research has repeatedly shown this to be true. Standardized test scores can be very valuable to a teacher as something against which to check her own impressions of a pupil. Test results, however, for some insidious reason, seem to have a collection of "booby traps" which teachers must learn to avoid.

The Futile Quest for Certainty

One of these the writer always thinks of as "the futile quest for certainty." Intelligence test results are most often expressed as an I.Q., and achievement test results as a grade equivalent. One sometimes hears teachers talking about Mary's achieving at the 6.8 grade level while John is at the 6.7 grade level, as if they knew for a fact that Mary is one month ahead of John in her school achievement; or that John's I.Q. of 108 proves that he is brighter than Mary who has an I.Q. of only 106. The truth is that our educational measuring instruments are not accurate enough to measure with such precision. There is always a margin of probable error in measurement. Your physician prefers to take two or three readings of

your blood pressure rather than to depend on a single measurement, and he is likely to refer to it as being "within normal limits" rather than to define it in hairsplitting terms. This limitation is no reason for throwing test results in the trash can. They can be useful approximations of what it is we want to know.

Don't Be a Norm Worshipper

Another point on which our thinking should be clear is the matter of "norms." A norm expressed as a grade or age equivalent, for example, is simply an average. Whether it is a mean or median or a mode, it is still an average. If a score of 50 on a standardized spelling test indicates that a pupil is achieving at the 5.3 grade level, it merely means that this was the average score made by a relatively large selected group of pupils who were in the third month of the fifth grade. Obviously, approximately half of these pupils had a score lower than 50, and about half were above it. It must be apparent that what this average score will be will depend largely on the group of pupils selected for standardization purposes.

Research has shown that norms differ so widely that direct comparisons cannot safely be made between two different achievement tests. The most common fallacy in using norms is the assumption that they are standards; that is, the feeling that there is something definitely wrong with the achievement of a pupil or group of pupils if they are not "up to the norm" in spite of personal or cultural inadequacies over which they have no control. Or conversely, that a child is doing quite well enough if he is "up to the norm" when, as a matter of fact, considering his ability and learning advantages, he should be doing much better. We should not become a cult of "norm worshippers," but should use norms with professional discretion in the light of all we know about the child and the factors which influence his learning.

Testing Should Be a Staff Project

Finally, if a testing program is to have

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any real value, it should be carefully planned as a staff project by the people who are going to use the results—administrators, supervisors, teachers, and guidance workers. Unless all of these people understand the program and believe in its utility, it will not have much chance to succeed. Furthermore, a testing program should have continuity if it is to yield much benefit. Sporadic or "one-shot" testing may tell something about a pupil at a given point in time, but if we really mean what we say about being interested in the intellectual growth of a child, achievement testing should be done at regular intervals throughout his school life. In this way the pupil's growth in learning can be charted. This implies deciding upon a reputable achievement test and then sticking with it over a period of years. Some schools appear to change their tests as often as and for no more practical reason than milady adopts the fall or spring fashions.

Much more could be said about the pitfalls of testing, but the writer believes that if thoughtful consideration is given to the points made above, the average school's testing program will be greatly improved. If you are tempted to test just "because it is the thing to do"—don't! Schedule a good film instead or plan a field trip. It will be more helpful and a lot more fun.

7. I WISH I KNEW HOW TO STUDY BETTER

THE STAFF OF ONE BUREAU SCHOOL made a special effort to find out what its high school students considered to be their most pressing problems. As one method of gathering information, the staff used a check list* which was designed to assist school personnel in identifying problems which youth say concern them most.

From this inventory, the staff was able to

identify areas of concern such as employment opportunities and some particular problems of the students. For example, one item on the inventory "I wish I knew how to study better" was checked by 72 percent of all the students as being a problem. But what should be of deep concern to us is that 73 percent of the seniors recognized they needed better study skills. These students were nearing the end of their high school years, yet they did not feel that they knew how to study effectively.

This does not necessarily mean that the remaining 27 percent of the seniors had well developed study skills. They may have or it could possibly mean that some did not recognize their lack of effective study skills.

One can well imagine that the staff of this particular school will be deeply concerned with study skills this year. No doubt, every teacher will concentrate on establishing the study habits needed by the students in his grade or subject matter area.

If you administered this inventory, what percentage of your students would recognize the need to improve their study skills? Clarence Wesley, Chairman, San Carlos Apache Tribe, stated in a recent magazine article:** "I have been told that at the University of Arizona, in the very recent past, 25 out of 30 Indians entering that university found themselves unable to compete with the non-Indian students and had to drop out." More than likely there was a combination of reasons behind the decisions to leave school, but one wonders what part poor study skills had in those decisions. One wonders, too, if those students would have been able to solve many of their other problems if they had been able to study effectively and could have kept up with their class assignments. An 80 percent casualty rate is much too high.

The teacher who would help his students must know (a) what study skills are needed

*SRA Youth Inventory, Science Research Associates, 57 West Grand Avenue, Chicago 10, Ill.

**"Indian Education," *Journal of American Indian Education*, Vol. 1, No. 1. Arizona State Univ., Tempe, Ariz. June 1961

by his particular students, (b) how skilled each individual student is, and (c) how to teach each technique needed by his students. After teaching the study techniques he must supervise the practice until each individual has established proper habits. For example, after teaching the technique of previewing or the breaking down of an assignment in a history textbook, the teacher must supervise practice sessions until the students have formed the habit of previewing each assignment as the first step in studying it.

Unless students have been taught to do otherwise, they usually begin a reading assignment without any examination of the table of content, looking over section headings in a chapter, reading the first and last paragraphs, or without examining the pictorial aids. Unless they have been taught, or unless in their own search for better methods of study they have developed some technique for breaking down the assignment before they begin reading, students do not realize that knowing the general plan of a chapter in advance gives a sense of direction to their reading. After previewing, what are the next steps in studying the assignment?

Many students who read a piece of fiction of a social studies assignment rapidly and efficiently are thoroughly confused by their mathematics assignments. Why? The reading of a problem requires a different kind of reading; it calls for much more attention to detail. The whole problem should be read for general understanding and then read analytically, by parts, to determine the steps necessary for solving. Particular attention should be given to the preciseness of the language.

The acquiring of effective skills in using library facilities must be a part of all students' education. These skills will make them better students in their classes. And, they will need these skills when they go to the public library in the community in which

they live. Especially will they need to know how to use the library if they go on for higher education.

One wonders if those 25 dropouts from the University of Arizona really knew how to use the library—the card catalog, Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature, etc. Do your students know how to browse in the library?

There are many study techniques which students must have opportunities to convert into habits. They need to know how to take notes on what they listen to and on what they read; how to organize material for writing a paper or making an oral report; and they must be willing to seek the teacher's help when it is needed. What are the special skills your students need?

The student who recognizes that he needs better study habits should not be hard to convince that he must practice what you teach him and that he will have to acquire a variety of skills which he can apply in different study situations. He will be receptive to the idea that he needs to budget his time daily so that there will be time for study as well as for other activities, and he can be led to make and keep a schedule suited to his particular needs.

In our efforts to upgrade the quality of education for Indian people, let us include the teaching of effective study skills as one of the ways to improve learning. Every teacher, regardless of what grade or subject taught, must have an active part in building this program. It should be a developmental program just as the reading improvement programs have been developmental.

The staff that will conscientiously attack the problem of poor study skills as it did the reading problem can hope for the same kind of improvement. Concerted effort can reduce the percentage of seniors in your school who will say, "I wish I knew how to study better."

8. DOES IT MEAN WHAT IT SAYS?

"**W**E CAN GET THE COW for a song." "She locked the barn door after the horse was stolen." "Don't bite my head off." Do these expressions really mean what they say? Is there really any danger of someone biting your head off? Of course, we know there isn't. We know this because we have a background of familiar experiences with English language idioms. But what about children who are learning English as a second language? Do they always understand the dual meanings and subtleties of some English words and phrases? Often such children fail to grasp the significance of the double meaning of idiomatic expressions and suffer, as a consequence, a disastrous loss of comprehension. As a group these children must depend somewhat on a bilingual translation of concepts. When they encounter English language idioms their task becomes increasingly difficult because the translation of the English language idiom into their language is almost impossible.

Teachers need to be sensitive to the difficulties Indian children have with idioms and to be alert for ways to temper the resultant confusion.

All language development is based on experience. We communicate with sounds, written symbols, or gestures which represent experience situations. Many of the children come from homes where the opportunity is lacking to go through the commonly expected experiences of the majority culture. Others are quite advanced in experiences but relatively deficient in labeling their experiences with English symbols. Consequently, every effort should be made to see that children who are learning a second language have opportunities to hear English words and sentences in relation to the experiences they are having. The need to enlarge and enrich the experiences of Indian children, so that synonyms, idioms, etc. are understood, is a goal worthy of the best effort of every

teacher.

A graduate study made by Maurine Dunn Yandell at the University of New Mexico pinpoints the difficulties some Indian pupils have with idioms commonly used in elementary basic reading text.* Mrs. Yandell's study was designed to measure the extent to which children of the minority groups (Navajo, Zuni, Spanish) in the Gallup-McKinley County schools in New Mexico understood idiomatic expressions. The test was administered to 516 pupils in these schools. The group included 224 Navajos, 164 Anglos, 76 Spanish, and 52 Zunis. A control sample of sixth-grade Anglo children in Waterloo, Iowa, and Albuquerque, New Mexico, was administered the same idiom test in order to establish norms for comparative purposes.

The test included idiomatic expressions with four possible choices of meaning. For example: Don't bite my head off.

1. Don't be so cross.
2. Don't get so close.
3. Don't bite my head.
4. Don't be so loud.

The Gallup-McKinley ethnic groups understand idioms, as measured by the test, in this order: (a) Anglo, (b) Spanish, (c) Zuni, and (d) Navajo. Girls from the Navajo, Anglo, and Spanish groups scored higher than the boys. Zuni boys scored higher than Zuni girls. The medians for the Spanish, Zuni, and Navajo fell in the 5th percentile and lower, when compared with the norms in this study established on the control groups. There is evidence from this study which might indicate that the Navajo's ability to read is more dependent upon the interpretation of idiom than is true for the Anglo.

The fact that the Zuni and Navajo understand idioms least well of all ethnic groups tested seems to point to the need for Bureau educators to place more emphasis on developing a better understanding of English language idioms among pupils attending Bu-

*Yandell, Maurine D. *Some Difficulties Which Indian Children Encounter With Idioms in Reading*. Univ. of N. Mex. 1959

rea schools. Perhaps experimental studies in the teaching of idiomatic expressions are called for in Bureau schools so that Indian

children can more readily learn and understand the idiosyncrasies of the English language.

5

UPGRADING INDIAN EDUCATION

1. THE SKY IS NO LONGER THE LIMIT

IN THIS PUBLICATION we have emphasized the need for quality education. We have discussed the roles of various education employees and their importance to providing education of quality for Indian youth.

All of us, including Indian leaders and Indian parents, have been concerned about the serious educational deficiencies of Indian people. We have been highlighting the lack of educational facilities for certain Indian groups, the over-crowded conditions in certain Indian schools, and the obsolescence of many school plants. Much progress has been made; much remains to be done.

A Call for Quality

Although plants are important and must be adequate, the key to quality education is the teacher (and each education employee in an Indian school is a teacher). It is the teacher who fires the minds of children with a desire to learn; and then through daily classroom and dormitory work keeps that desire burning brightly. It is the teacher through her skills who nourishes intellectual growth to its fullest, and it is the teacher in cooperation with the home and other institutions who molds the character of the children under the influence of her guiding hand. This calls for skills of the highest order. The ineffectual and mediocre teacher does irreparable damage to youth.

Although all youth need teachers who perform at a high level, the need of Indian youth for teachers who do superior teaching is even greater. Generally speaking, the Indian population 25 years and over is about

half as well educated as the national population. Therefore, the Indian population must overcome now an educational handicap of five to six grades to put themselves on an equal footing with the national population. How to help Indians overcome such a severe educational handicap tests the ingenuity of every employee to the maximum.

Now that man has ventured into space and returned to earth, we are truly in a space age. This space trip will accentuate the need for a higher national level of educational achievement. The present median educational level of this country is 11th grade. We can expect that level to soar rapidly to higher levels in the next decade. Will those with less than a high school education in 1975 be looking for jobs that don't exist? Perhaps. Will every Indian child in our classes this year, and next, stay in school to complete high school and more? That depends largely on Indian parents and on us. And if these children don't stay in school, will they be in bread lines in the future? Probably yes. That thought should stir us all to serious action—action that will assure education of the highest quality for Indian youth.

A Call for Professional Growth

In light of these sobering facts, let us examine our educational practices. A man in space highlights dramatically the changes we face. Our earthbound minds cannot fathom the drastic changes we must face in our daily living, yet are we teaching in the same old ways that characterized our work 10, 15, and 25 years ago? What new knowledge have we put to use in our work with children is a question we should ask ourselves seriously.

It took imagination to put a man in

space. It will take minds willing to grapple with new ideas and work them out to explore and live in outer space. No longer can we say, "The sky is the limit." Imaginative minds cannot grow in classrooms manned by unimaginative teachers. Let us take inventory of our efforts and ask ourselves what evidence can we give to show we are employees with imagination.

Perhaps a few will be satisfied with their work, and if you are one who is completely satisfied, please be urged to leave the teaching profession because no teacher should ever become self-satisfied. The moment that happens, that teacher begins to die professionally; and professionally dead teachers cannot prepare youth for life in any age, much less in the space age.

Most teachers will find themselves lacking according to the standards of excellence they have set for themselves. They will be dissatisfied with their efforts. They will see deficiencies in their knowledge of children and how to work with them. They will realize deficiencies in their knowledge of subject matter. They will feel inadequate in their understanding of recent research in the educational field, and they will feel a keen need for bringing their background in line with today's findings.

Some will live with their dissatisfactions; others will try to do something about them. Those who know their teaching is not adequate and still are not concerned enough to make the effort to remedy the situation should also be urged to find employment in areas where their complacency will not affect the future of Indian youth.

A Call To Use Educational Leave

Fortunately, evidence points to the fact that most education employees in the Bureau are dedicated individuals; therefore, with rare exception, employees in our schools fall in the category of those who are dissatisfied with the quality of their work to the extent that they will do something about it. And fortunately, too, most education employees have a resource to permit them to

upgrade their teaching skills: educational leave. The Bureau of Indian Affairs is most happy to have as many of its employees as possibly can use their educational leave to improve their professional skills. School administrators should encourage each employee eligible for educational leave to take leave in the summer months to enroll in college courses for a higher degree related to his field of work. Even if a higher degree is not the objective, course work that will bring inspiration and new ideas to an employee's work should be encouraged.

If we are on the threshold of an age where the sky is no longer the limit, we as educators must be prepared to meet the demands made upon us. No greater demands are made upon any educators than those who teach Indian children. They must have the skills to teach English as a second language, and the almost superhuman skills to bring Indians in this generation to an educational level that has taken others in our population two or three generations to attain. But again there is no limit either to the efforts or sacrifices employees in Bureau schools will make to serve Indians better.

2. BUILDING CATHEDRALS

AS WE START a new school year (1962), we have around us the children who in a few short years will be the adult citizens of this country. They will be facing problems related to the country's economy, its security, its relationships with other countries, and its internal and domestic issues. Each individual will be concerned with finding his place in a world far different from the one we know.

Those who are giving serious attention to the changes ahead estimate that half of the jobs of the 1970's and 1980's do not exist today. This fact alone makes it difficult for youth to select definite and specific occupa-

tional goals. How can a young man determine what occupation he wishes to pursue if he lacks sufficient information concerning the occupational opportunities that will be available when he becomes an adult? How can he know what occupations will soon be obsolete?

This situation, without question, is difficult but it is not as hopeless as it might appear. Despite the lack of precise information about future employment opportunities, there is still a great deal of pertinent information that can be used to assist youth in shaping their goals and working toward them. The school has the responsibility to make this information available and to guide each youth in the use of it. We know, without any doubt, that each individual must have more education to live a useful life than our generation needed. This fact should become ingrained in Indian thinking, and kept constantly before Indian youth.

Generally speaking, the great grandparents of this generation of Indian youth had little or no formal education. Although this may have adversely affected the overall progress of Indian people, it did not too seriously affect the lives of individual Indian families. The next generation received, again generally speaking, a partial elementary education in schools such as Carlisle and other Federal boarding and day schools. This, in keeping with the needs and opportunities of that generation, was considered a good education. For the fathers and mothers of today's Indian youth, a high school education was considered adequate. Some achieved a high school education, others did not. As a result, many adults today are taking advantage of the opportunities for further education and training afforded under the Bureau's adult vocational training programs.

In terms of today's growing needs and changing opportunities, each Indian youth must get all of the education he possibly can. For this generation of youth, high

school is not sufficient preparation for participation in the affairs of the future when each will be required to meet the challenges and responsibilities of mature citizenship. It is the responsibility of the school staff to develop in each youth that realization. He must know much more than was required of former generations just to get along in life. He must be far more conversant with science, with domestic and world politics, with mathematics, with world geography, and he must know about and have respect for people of other countries. As an example: powerlines and roads alone that now traverse Indian lands bring untold new demands for increased knowledge—knowledge about electricity, about mechanics, about industry, about business, and about sanitation. Indian grandparents never dreamed of these developments.

This type of development is a generation late in coming to most rural Indian communities; therefore, Indians have to overcome a deficit to bring their experiences on a par with others. Overcoming this deficit in itself places an extra educational load on schools educating Indians. But, we cannot stop with merely overcoming the deficit.

The need for rapidly expanding the knowledge of all citizens is a major task of all of today's schools. The volume of knowledge, it is estimated, doubled between 1950 and 1960, and will double again between 1960 and 1967. A little reflection on our part to recall the new discoveries and developments since 1950 will highlight this rapid increase in knowledge during the past 12 years. Indian youth must, therefore, overcome a deficit in knowledge and at the same time they must keep pace with the new knowledge as it develops and expands. Otherwise, they will always trail by a generation other segments of population. Overcoming an educational deficit and at the same time keeping pace with 20-century developments require of Indian youth a much greater output of effort than is required of

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most other students. Likewise, it requires a greater effort on the part of all who guide and teach this generation of Indian youth.

Let's pause for a moment and examine our schools in light of the school's task as described above. Suppose we make staffing the first item of consideration. Have the best people available been selected for all positions? Are all positions filled? Have teachers been adequately oriented? Have teachers been given the assignments for which they are best qualified?

Next, take a good look at the library in your school. Check the copyright dates on your library books. Check the number of volumes of up-to-date books in your library. Check the variety and number of periodicals. Can you say with conviction that your library has kept pace with the expansion of knowledge since 1950?

Next, check the visual and audio materials available in your school. Do you have up-to-date maps, globes, models, displays, exhibits, slides, tapes, records, etc.? Are these visual and audio aids used consistently to extend and reinforce learning?

Now, take a good look at the courses that are being offered. Has the content of those courses changed since 1950 in keeping with the twice-doubled volume of knowledge? What about your civics and history offerings, your mathematics and science courses, and your geography and consumer-education courses? How much have they changed since 1950? Are you using newer methods to develop English language capability? What about your vocational offerings? Are you expecting your high school graduates to be adequately prepared for employment? Perhaps it would be well, at the beginning of this school year, to review with your supervisors the Bureau's policy which has shifted emphasis from terminal high school vocational training to a practical arts emphasis, thus postponing vocational skill training, in most instances, to post high school years. This should be a review in depth to determine the purpose of this change and what it

means to implement it.

Is your physical fitness program limited to those who qualify for competitive sports, or do you have a physical education program for all students?

Lastly, let us take a good look at the experiential environment your school provides for today's youth. Does your school provide experiences that will acquaint this generation of Indian youth with 20th-century living? Does it provide and properly use the materials and equipment that reflect 20th-century standards? Does it provide opportunities to give youth experience in the appreciation of the finer things of life: good music, art, drama, and literature?

How will youth learn to appreciate the finer things of life if we fail to expose them to such experiences as they grow up? In that context, is a piano a luxury or a necessity? It naturally follows that the staff must be qualified to use the piano for the purpose it is intended. The world's best music is available on records and tapes. Do Indian children have an opportunity to hear such music?

A strip kitchen adjacent to the dormitory living room or rumpus room is far more than a bare kitchen in the learning opportunities it offers, provided it is used for the instructional purpose for which it was intended. The same applies to a living room attractively furnished, provided again it is used by teacher-advisers and instructional aids as a laboratory for teaching adequately living standards. And—who knows—perhaps growing up in such surroundings may spell the difference in adulthood of students choosing a decent, attractive home in preference to unacceptable social activities for satisfying the basic needs and desires for social status, companionship, and recreation.

This discussion is meant to provoke critical analysis of your school as you begin this school year, in the hope that it will result in greater emphasis on the expenditure of school funds in favor of libraries, equipment, and materials that will make your

classrooms true laboratories of learning and your dormitories laboratories for teaching 20th-century living standards. It must follow, also, that all staff members must know how and be willing to use these laboratories to their fullest in carrying out their mission, which is to educate Indian youth.

The following story is offered for additional thought as it relates to that mission. A passerby came upon three workmen hewing away at a pile of stone. He asked each, in turn, what he was doing. The first replied rather indifferently, "Chipping stones." The second replied sarcastically, "I'm killing time until a better job comes along." The third paused a moment and replied thoughtfully, "I'm doing my bit to build a cathedral."

3. INDIAN PARTICIPATION IN EDUCATION

In OTHER ARTICLES, we have pointed out that all Indian groups gave special attention to education. Young members of the tribe from childhood on to adulthood were carefully taught the behavior expected of them, the responsibilities they would have to assume, and the skills and values important to their way of life. Boys were taught men's work, and girls were taught to do the work expected of women. All were taught their heritage and the attitudes and beliefs they should accept to live a good life.

Methods of instruction were informal and carried on through storytelling, through play, through ritual, and through actual participation in the daily activities of the group. Mothers, fathers, uncles, grandparents, and religious leaders were teachers of youth, and all of them faithfully carried on their respective responsibilities for the education of the young. They imparted to youth the importance of applying themselves to the learning of that which was expected of them.

Teaching responsibilities were well

grounded in the culture and thoroughly understood. The introduction of the school as a separate institution to carry out the education of youth brought with it newer responsibilities that Indian adults had never carried. They had no understanding of the responsibilities associated with school management and operation. School districts, school boards, and school elections—all vital elements of non-Indian local government—presented a constellation of new ideas. Consequently, there was little understanding of the rights and responsibilities related to school government. Furthermore, an institution which taught not only a new language but ideas and values vastly different from Indian life often made little sense to Indian groups. The words of an early chief ably present the point of view of early Indians toward the type of schooling cherished by Western culture: "Several of our young people were formerly brought up at the colleges . . . they were instructed . . . but when they came back to us . . . ignorant of every means of living in the woods . . . totally good for nothing. We are, however, . . . obligated by your kind offer. . . . And, to show our grateful sense of it, if the gentlemen of Virginia will send us a dozen of their sons we will . . . instruct them in all we know, and make men of them."

A study of history reveals an interesting and often tragic story of Indian and non-Indian attitudes toward the education of Indian youth; a story all too lengthy and complex to be told here except to say that today the school is accepted as an important institution in Indian life. Indian adults are learning increasingly to carry the responsibilities associated with school government.

Many already know how to exercise a voice in school management through the franchise; others are learning. Some Indians serve as elected members of local school boards; as time goes on, others will do likewise. Many Indian parents are members of the Parent-Teacher Association and other organizations interested in improving

educational opportunities; others are learning how to participate in and to express themselves through such organizations.

Indian parents and adults are imparting to Indian youth in many ways and with greater emphasis the importance of education. They are insisting on adequate educational opportunities for their children, and are insisting that their children remain in school. As a consequence, with this parental backing, Indian children and youth in greater numbers are staying in school through high school and beyond. To illustrate, an Indian parent brought his son who had dropped out of school to a school official seeking help to convince the youth that he should go back to school. This action on the part of the parent not only succeeded in getting the teenager back in school, but conveyed to the youth the importance of education and the father's interest in his future. It showed the boy that his father cared, and that means much to youth.

Many Indian parents are making great sacrifices to keep their children in school and to assure regular school attendance. For example, a young mother to send her children to school with clean clothes melted the snow over a wood fire, washed their clothes by hand in the water from the melted snow, dried them in freezing weather, and ironed them with a flatiron heated on a wood stove. Not many mothers in this day and age must labor under such conditions to send their children to school in clean clothes. Nevertheless, this mother showed through her hard work that education is important. She told these children through her actions that she cared, and that she wanted them to get an education.

A young man in college was having a financial struggle. The parents were helping all they could, but it was not enough to meet his college expenses. The mother sought help from several sources and succeeded in locating scholarship aid to keep her son in college to graduation. She too cared, and surely this young man will show as much in-

terest in the education of his own family as his parents showed in his education.

Each year over 6,000 Navajo children 12 years of age and over are enrolled in schools away from their home communities. Sending children far from home is not easy, but many parents make this choice to assure their children's education. A great deal of time and effort is required to get 6,000 students enrolled in their proper schools, and in former years approximately 50 staff members from off-reservation schools were sent to the Navajo Reservation to help local Bureau staff with the enrollment of these youth. Last fall (1962) the local chapter officers of the Navajo Tribe took on this enrollment responsibility for the first time and carried it out very successfully. The time and effort which the Navajo chapter officers devoted to this task demonstrated to Navajo youth the importance their elders attached to education. It proved how much they cared about education and the future of the young people of the tribe. Indian tribal groups are stressing education beyond the high school.

Most tribal organizations have appointed or elected tribal education committees. A number of Indian leaders participated with top Bureau school officials in two different workshop sessions to outline the educational needs of Indian people. Many of the recommendations formulated during these sessions have been incorporated in the Bureau's educational programs and policies. Some Indian leaders plan and conduct educational workshops involving representatives of universities and State Departments of Education, and Bureau, mission, and public school officials as well as tribal members. These sessions have had an unusual impact on the education of Indian children.

Indians are often invited to discuss Indian educational problems at college seminars and workshops. This, too, is important in that it develops a better understanding of Indian needs and problems. This variety of interest and participation communicates to

youth the great value that their leaders place on education. It tells far better than words that education holds a place of great importance in the minds of their elders.

Tribal groups which have financial resources are investing a share of their tribal funds in the education of their youth. Some groups provide clothing for needy children, funds for high school graduation, and 36 groups provide aid for education beyond the high school. This aid is provided through grants and loans. In 1962, tribal aid for education beyond the high school amounted to \$759,000. This proves that Indian leaders and parents do care about higher education for their youth.

These are samplings of evidence that show formal education is valued today by Indian groups. Indian parents and Indian groups are communicating to their youth in many ways concerning the importance of education. More than may be realized, Indians are learning the newer responsibilities associated with education. Great credit is due them for the efforts they are putting forth to assure better educational opportunities for their children.

There is still much hard work ahead to give Indian youth the kind of schooling that is required to develop educational competency for 20th-century living. This tremendous job in education cannot be done without the close partnership between the Indian parents and the school and the community leaders. The future of Indian youth rests heavily on how well all of us learn to strengthen this partnership and thus improve parental, school, and community efforts on behalf of youth.

4. ANOTHER LOOK AT DROPOUTS

AT THE CLOSE of the 1958-59 school year we analyzed holding power of Bureau schools and published the results in

a pamphlet entitled **Today's Dropouts—Tomorrow's Problems**. Based on the findings of that study, we concluded that 60 percent of Indian high school students did not stay in school to graduate. Comparatively speaking, the Indian high school dropout problem at that time was about 50 percent greater than the national dropout rate.

The 1958-59 analysis alerted school officials to the problem, and programs were accelerated to increase Bureau school holding power. Summer programs of many kinds, especially the student work programs, have shown a positive influence on school holding power. New school construction, which has relieved serious overcrowding in some schools, we believe, is having some influence on holding power. Some schools have been rather successful in improving dormitory living; and thus, in making dormitories more homelike, may be exercising some influence on holding power. Stepped-up program emphasis on improvement of oral English and reading skills is, no doubt, contributing to holding power. Improved and strengthened guidance programs, without question, are having their influence.

Although a comprehensive restudy of school dropouts to compare with the 1958-59 study will be made only at 5-year intervals, a recent overall check indicates that the dropout rate is being stabilized in that the percentage of dropouts is remaining about the same each year. While this is encouraging, it does not mean that school officials can relax in their drive against school dropouts. Each school staff should reread carefully the 1958-59 study and give renewed emphasis to the suggestions it offers.

Some of the hopeful signs show up in the reductions of dropouts due to conflict with the law, marriage, and unwed pregnancies. Although the figures cannot be conclusive at this time, it appears that those leaving school in 1961-62 because of marriage and unwed pregnancies are about 33 percent less than in the 1958-59 school year, and those leaving because of conflict with the law have been reduced by about one-fourth.

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The overall analysis of dropout data revealed the less hopeful sign that students discontinue their education mainly because of failure to adjust to school.

The largest single category listed as a cause of dropouts was "withdrawn by parents." School officials will want to continue their efforts to inform parents about the importance of education to the future success and happiness of their children.

In the 1960-61 school year, slightly less than 31 percent of the school dropouts resulted from withdrawal by parents, and in 1961-62 the percentage was slightly over 31 percent. This indicates the need for developing greater understanding with parents as to the serious long-range consequences of taking their children out of school.

The involvement of parents in the community in the educational processes through the efforts of the adult educator is reducing student dropouts according to many reports. Tribal leadership should be made aware of what parents can do to improve education. Agency superintendents, social welfare staffs, adult education teachers, as well as Bureau school officials should carry on a continuous informational campaign among parents regarding their responsibility in this matter. The cooperation of church workers, traders, and other non-Bureau personnel would also help.

In addition, about 40 percent of the dropouts resulted from two other situations: failure to return from home leave and absence from school without leave. The reduction of the dropouts related to these two categories requires a cooperative effort of both school officials and parents. School officials can study the reasons why their students go a.w.o.l.; and once they put their fingers on the real causes, they will then be in a position to do something about them. Both the schools and the parents need to join hands to return students to school after home leave. Perhaps the greatest incidence of failure to return after home leave occurs after the Christmas vacation.

If our attack on school dropouts is to show significant improvement from the 1958-59 school year, we must mobilize our forces against these three interrelated causes: withdrawal by parents, failure to return after home leave, and absence without leave. These three categories account for approximately 72 percent of the school dropouts.

The dropout problem begins to rear its head in the seventh grade. Before that the percentage is insignificant and, no doubt, is related in a large measure to such causes as prolonged illness and hospitalization. In the seventh grade the dropout rate increases approximately 30 percent over the sixth grade and continues to increase each school year until the tenth grade where it is stabilized at about 10 percent, with a reduction to 8 percent in the twelfth grade. The highest percentage of dropouts occurs in the ninth grade. This is significant in that it indicates the need for well-planned orientation programs for all ninth-grade students.

Each school staff should analyze its total effort to orient ninth-graders to high school. Where no orientation programs exist, programs should be carried out and the results studied. Where programs are now carried on, they should be analyzed as to their effectiveness.

The 8 percent dropout in the twelfth grade is tragic. Why do 8 out of every 100 students fail to stay to graduate? Are they taking jobs before they finish? Are they dropping out because they are failing their courses? Are they leaving school to marry? These and other questions we must ask ourselves to find the causes; and then we must do something to improve the situation because this generation will be lost in this technical age if it does not have a high school education. If individuals in this generation are called upon to retrain themselves at least three times during their working careers, as the experts tell us, how can they do so without at least a high school education?

If the high school dropout rate is being stabilized, as the figures appear to indicate, these facts should serve only to spur us to redouble our efforts because we have far to go to solve this problem. Unless we keep this generation in school, we cannot lessen the educational handicap of Indian people as rapidly as conditions indicate we must. We believe you will give this problem your continued study and best effort.

5. KNOWING THE WORLD OF WORK

IN OTHER ISSUES **Indian Education** has dealt with the need to accelerate the educational competency of Indian people, pointing out that this generation of youth, like all youth, must be more knowledgeable and better skilled than their parents if they are to function adequately in this scientific age. The changes of this century have been swift and drastic. The experts tell us that knowledge is doubling every 10 to 15 years. Occupational opportunities are shifting rapidly with many occupations becoming obsolete and newer ones taking their places. Work depending on common labor or simple skills is rapidly being replaced by machines, resulting in a surplus of untrained or under-trained manpower. On the other hand, manpower is in a shortage category in many of the professional, technical, and highly skilled fields. This has created a national problem, and legislation such as the training programs under the Manpower Development Training Act and the Area Redevelopment Act is directed at retraining that section of the work force whose skills are obsolete.

The median educational level of the general population 25 years and over has increased from 8.4 grades in 1940 to 10.6 in 1960, but this is not fast enough. Individuals need a broader base of education, not only to understand the world in which they live but also to profit from retraining. It is

estimated that the average worker of the future will have to be retrained two or three times during his working career to keep his skills current with employment demands. The race is on for more education, better education, and continuing education.

These facts and predictions should cause those of us concerned with the education of Indian youth to pause and to ask ourselves: Where are Indians in this race for more education and higher skills? What are our responsibilities for helping Indians achieve and maintain educational competency? What can we do to carry out our responsibility?

Obviously, the answers to these questions could lead us into several avenues of discussion, but may we confine this discussion to one topic: career planning for Indian youth.

Indian youth need extra help in planning their careers. This is especially true of the youth in Bureau schools since, for the most part, these youth come from the more isolated Indians homes. Generally speaking, they have had the least contacts with modern life. Over 80 percent of them come from homes where English, if spoken at all, is spoken as a second language. Usually their parents have had limited formal education, and some none at all.

What chances have these Indian youth had to learn about career opportunities? Very little. The children whose parents have been laborers on farms, in factories, on roads and railroads know that jobs are important because they have experienced firsthand the true meaning of unemployment. They know through painful experience what it means for the breadwinner to be out of a job, and unable to get another. Jobs, therefore, are extremely important in their thinking, but they need extra help in their own career planning because they have had little opportunity to know firsthand what people do other than what they see in their own limited environment. Can one aspire to do or to be that which he does not know exists?

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The need of Indian students for extra help in career planning is pin-pointed clearly in three widely separated, independent surveys of students of several tribes and in different kinds of school situations: Federal, mission, and public. In the first, Dr. Elizabeth Hoyt of Iowa State University in an article written for the **Journal of American Indian Education** reported the findings of a study in which 582 Indian students, ages 15-17, and 207 non-Indian children wrote essays on "My Hopes for Life on Leaving School." In a letter to us about her findings in the study Dr. Hoyt advises that Indian children, in spite of the importance to them of jobs, knew relatively little about the jobs that might be open to them and the preparation needed for such jobs. In contrast, "The confusion of white children was rather in the direction of having so many alternatives that they could not choose."

Dr. Bernardoni of the Indian Division of the Arizona State Department of Public Instruction, in a survey of one group of Indian students, found they had but hazy notions about careers and specific job opportunities. In questions directed toward vocational choices the Indian students responded generally they would "like to go with Relocation," "work for the Bureau," or "take a job with Public Health." The student responses indicated a serious lack of understanding about occupations.

On a youth inventory given 366 students in a Bureau school, the percentage of Indian children who checked the following concerns was roughly double on the first two questions, and more than double on the third, that of other students who were surveyed in a national sample: What jobs are open to high school graduates? How do I go about finding a job? Where can I go for help in finding a job?

This is not surprising when we think of the limited experiences most Indian youth have in knowing firsthand what other people do.

Surely we cannot escape our responsibil-

ties to open up the world of work to Indian children—to give them broader understandings of the career opportunities that may be available to them, and the educational preparation necessary for various types of careers. We have a serious responsibility to inspire Indian children to set high goals for themselves, and then to give them the special help they need to achieve those goals.

Schools have done much to give students information about career opportunities through guidance classes, social studies, and vocational courses. This is good, but it is not enough. What has been done through these avenues needs reinforcement with firsthand experience with the world of work through summer jobs (and many more of these can be helper jobs in the professional fields) and through acquaintance with people engaged in various types of work. The Alaskan students who had an opportunity to see Werner Von Braun in person last summer received inspiration and knowledge that was invaluable in extending their knowledge about the world of work. Naturally few will ever have that rare opportunity, but there are many similar opportunities that we can bring to students if we are resourceful.

The experience of the 25 Indian girls who attended the World of Work Conference in Washington, D. C., did much to enlarge their horizons concerning career opportunities and how to plan for careers. The entire spectrum of job opportunities was presented to these girls through addresses, panels, visual aids, and by resource people in small discussion groups. The girls themselves took an active part in all the discussions, and without doubt their understandings were deepened and new aspirations were kindled.

This same type of conference could be carried on in several of our larger schools as a feature of our summer program where many more than 25 students could be reached. A well-planned conference would provide career models through resource people; and would include discussions on career

opportunities, information about specific occupations, steps in career planning, and relationship of career choice to educational preparation. Several of our staff members participated in the World of Work Conference. They would be able to assist any school to plan a similar conference. This office could also supply the planners with packets of materials for students in such a conference.

There is need to strengthen and accelerate understanding of career opportunities. However, we must put this discussion in proper perspective. Hundreds of Indians have prepared themselves and are following satisfying careers in a modern world of work. Typical of these is the individual who spent two or three years as an instructional aid, became knowledgeable of guidance careers, enrolled in college, obtained his degree and later earned a masters degree, worked in the guidance field for several years, and is now an outstanding leader in his tribal group. He combined capability and aspiration and earned for himself recognition in a profession and the respect of his tribe.

6. MACHINES VERSUS UNSKILLED LABOR

IT HAS BEEN PREDICTED that within a few years industry will have relatively little need for unskilled labor. The truth of this prediction is already evident. Look to the coal fields of Kentucky and Pennsylvania, to the stockyard area of Chicago, to the mill towns of New England, and to the automobile industry of Michigan where unschooled and unskilled men are finding it increasingly more difficult to hold jobs. The labor they once performed is being replaced rapidly by machines. These workers are becoming human rejects in a world of automation.

Even though new industrial enterprises in these same areas may open up new jobs, these new developments may not materially

relieve the employment problem of the unskilled worker because he lacks the skills necessary to compete for most of the new jobs. Retraining accompanied, perhaps, by relocation to areas where jobs are available may be, in many cases, the only permanent solution to the dilemma of the individual worker.

Automation Affects Indian Adults

These hard facts project a new dimension to the problems of Indians. Indian leaders and Bureau of Indian Affairs administrators should give serious study to the impact of undereducation on all programs aimed at Indian betterment.

The problem of imbalance between land resources and Indian population makes it increasingly necessary for a large percentage of Indian adults to look for employment beyond their reservation if they wish to advance their standards of living. However, the problem today is not merely finding a job but finding a job that matches outmoded skills. Because of lack of educational opportunities in their youth or, in some instances, because of failure to take full advantage of the opportunities that were available to them in their youth, most Indian adults living on Indian reservations today are undereducated by comparison with the general population of the country. As industry becomes more and more one of automation, their chances for employment become less and less. Even for those undereducated Indian adults who fortunately do find unskilled employment, their job tenure is precarious. Their jobs may be replaced by further mechanization of industry, and when that happens they, too, may become human rejects of a mechanized world. For them retraining will be the only answer.

Fortunately, Indian adults do have opportunities for upgrading their employment skills. Under the provisions of Public Law 959 an Indian adult, age 18 to 35, may be able to get a maximum of two years of education and training leading to a new skill or a higher development of a skill already

possessed. Both Indian leaders and Bureau of Indian Affairs administrators should be thoroughly familiar with the provisions of Public Law 959 and the advantages it offers to the unskilled and unschooled Indian adult who qualifies for the assistance it provides. They should make this information available to all Indians who could profit from the training provided under this program.

Automation Affects Indian Youth

The serious and far-reaching implications of automation for Indian youth now in school must also be carefully studied by all those involved in providing practical education for Indian youth. Indian youth today, who will be the Indian adults of tomorrow, will find it increasingly more difficult to find employment with only a high school education. Without doubt, the Indian adult twenty years hence who has only a high school education will find himself just as educationally disadvantaged, by comparison, as the Indian adult today who has no more than an elementary education. He will find in the future that his high school background will not sufficiently match the job requirements of most of the jobs. A high school education will not be enough.

How well are we preparing Indian youth to meet the demands they are sure to face twenty years hence?

A recent analysis of data available to us indicates that approximately 60 percent of the Indian students who enter high school (all types of schools) do not stay to graduate. What will be the future of this 60 percent? It will be without question, unemployment or underemployment, but what else?

There have never been enough school seats for all Indian children or enough funds to build seats for those who stay in school in the elementary grades. If 60 percent more high school youth should stay to complete high school the need for seats would materially increase and the costs of school construction likewise. Should high school problems be raised before the problems of the

elementary grades have been met? Which should have priority?

And, what are the consequences if we fail to provide adequate educational opportunities now? How will greater unemployment among Indians be met? How much will it cost to meet it? Will delinquency increase? How will it be met and how much will it cost? (At Children's Village, Dobbs Ferry, New York, the annual cost for services to rehabilitate a seriously disturbed or delinquent boy is \$6,000.) Will undereducation produce greater dependency? Will undereducation produce increased frustration of Indian populations; and what toll will that take in social disintegration, dependency, and personal inadequacy? These are hard questions. It would be more comfortable to ignore them and leave them to take care of themselves. But dare we?

A pamphlet entitled **Today's Dropouts—Tomorrow's Problems** contains many facts about dropouts and some suggestions as to what schools may do about them. It is hoped that it will stimulate and assist you in evaluating the work your school is doing.

7. A CRITICAL LOOK AT THE HIGH SCHOOL EDUCATION PROGRAM

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION in Bureau schools has been under study by school officials since the administrators' conference in June 1957. Several changes have already been made, as the need for such changes became evident to local school officials and Indian communities. The changes have taken place gradually. Outmoded programs have been eliminated, and certain operations consolidated; for example, reduction of farm programs, change of emphasis on arts and crafts instruction, consolidation of grades in certain schools.

The agreements of the November meeting will form the basis for the discussions and recommendations to follow in February.

A summary of those agreements follows:

1. High school education is not enough in this day and age, but unless we motivate Indian parents and students to aspire to complete their high school program plus training beyond high school, this generation of Indians will be undereducated. **We cannot afford to lose this generation.** Motivating a large group of people, who believe they are educated if they have an elementary education, is a tremendous task that must receive all our attention.

2. If high school is not enough, high school programs should lay a strong base for further training beyond the high school in the trades, for the professions, in technical fields. Consequently, more and more of this generation of high school students should receive the kind of education that will prepare them for at least two years of training beyond the high school. As many as can be brought up to adequate levels should be encouraged to aspire to more than two years beyond high school. Indians have more educational opportunities for higher levels of training than ever before in their history: adult vocational training under Public Law 959; higher educational training through grants and loans; and special technical courses offered by Haskell, the Public Health Service, and other agencies.

3. Strengthening reading comprehension and English should receive all-out effort in all schools. Dormitory programs should contribute to a greater degree to strengthening interest in reading and use of English, as well as provide the accultural experiences in modern living lacking in Indian environments.

4. More emphasis on academic skills and less on industrial arts should be the program in the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades.

5. The emphasis on terminal vocational education (employment at the end of high school training) should be shifted to emphasis on industrial arts as found in an ordinary high school curriculum: woodworking, metal work, home economics, etc. In other words,

courses should be given that will prepare for further training, or will be useful to living regardless of later vocational choice. Terminal vocational courses should be eliminated and general courses substituted as rapidly as the background of students can be accelerated to the level where they have a reasonable chance for success in training beyond the high school level. (To avoid confusion the terms used,—general vocational or prevocational or industrial arts—should be clearly defined to differentiate between vocational courses that lead to job placement immediately upon completion and prevocational and avocational courses that develop interest and background for further training. Definitions will be developed at the February meeting to make this distinction.)

6. Terminal vocational education courses that are retained should begin not earlier than the tenth or the eleventh grade, preferably the latter. This type of vocational offering should be retained only when the following conditions prevail:

- (a) If there are employment opportunities in the field of work
- (b) A sufficient number of students seek the type of training to make the offering practicable. A vocational certificate should be offered rather than a high school diploma. (Some objections to this suggestion will be discussed further at the February meeting.)

7. Expensive terminal courses of limited demand should, where possible, be given in designated schools rather than duplication of such courses at several schools.

8. Vocational guidance and testing should be included in each school program.

9. Home economics courses to provide training in homemaking skills should be required as a part of every high school program to help Indian youth bridge the gap between the living standards of a modern community and an impoverished Indian community of low standards. Selected courses covering problems in home living should be required of every boy. Girls should have

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some training in shop skills of the do-it-yourself type.

10. When policy is developed and approved, each school program should be re-evaluated and changes made in terms of the background of the student body. For example, the non-English-speaking adolescent Navajo, educationally retarded, cannot advance to the level indicated by these changes as rapidly as the youth who has had eight or ten years of schooling. Programs should aim to educate and train Indian students for the highest levels of useful employment commensurate with their abilities.

Some of the facts that have been collected and evaluated are as follows:

1. Indian high school graduates are on the average one to two years younger than twenty years ago.

2. About 92 percent of school-age Indian children are now in school; attendance is improving.

Not more than 10 percent of the national labor force is unskilled.* This figure is rapidly decreasing. Seventy-five percent more professional and technical personnel and 25 percent fewer laborers will be required by industry in the future. In 1957 the Bureau of Census reported the average educational level as follows: white adults—11 years of school; non-white adults—7.7 years of school; Indians (estimated)—5 years of school. English skill and reading retardation depressed educational status of Indian adults.

3. Opportunities for further training that were nonexistent even three years ago are now open to Indian youth.

4. Approximately 85 percent of the Indian high school youth are retarded in reading and English, some as much as four, five, and six years.

5. It is estimated that one to three percent of boarding school pupils enrolled in Federal schools have emotional or social problems so serious that special considera-

tion should be given to meeting their needs.

Action now in progress:

1. Each Area is studying the reading problems of its pupils, and starting programs such as testing programs, inservice training programs, experimental programs, etc., to improve reading skills.

2. Training programs are being started to strengthen English and acculturation experiences. The work begins this month at Chemawa.

3. Further study is underway on consolidation of present programs to eliminate duplicated efforts. The Anadarko Area has proposed a plan for consideration. Phoenix Area is developing a plan.

4. Each Area is restudying its present vocational programs with respect to enrollment in each vocational course, practicality in terms of employment success of graduates, background of pupils, and costs of courses.

8. WHAT ELECTIVES IN GRADES 7-12 SCHOOLS

INTERMOUNTAIN SCHOOL has faced, this year, the determination of subjects to be offered in its accelerated regular program. This is a graded program designed for overage Navajo youth in grades 7 through 12. Intermountain's plan may be of interest to other Bureau secondary schools.

We have accepted certain underlying principles. These include all those stated in Dr. Conant's report entitled **The American High School Today**. For example, we accept the concept of a comprehensive high school. Intermountain School is sufficiently large to offer a great variety of vocational training to meet the needs of students who want to wind up their formal schooling with some training in a specific trade.

The Intermountain plan also makes provision for various degrees of academic ability. Some students may be able to succeed with a full amount of academic training

*Annual Report on Labor Force, Series P50-85. U.S. Bureau of the Census. 1957

leading to entrance into college. Some students may have only enough ability and interest to take a limited amount of traditional academic training. Some students may be able to pursue no subject matter at a level for college entrance credits. We conceive a multi-tracked program designed in advance to fold realistically around the needs of the students, case by case.

This is obviously a different kind of curriculum and a different kind of school from those schools which have an inflexible program to which students are expected to adjust or be held back or be flunked out. The aim of this program is to provide educationally rewarding instruction to all scholars and to hold them through the high school graduation age. For Intermountain students this may be through age 21, or possibly 22, since the Intermountain program is designed especially for overage youth.

Other concepts which the Intermountain plan provides include scheduling so that a student may shift at any time from one section to another in any required subject according to his academic advancement. This is Conant's recommendation concerning dynamic homogeneous grouping in required subjects.

In grades 7 and 8 a student's day is filled with required subjects. Some of these are nonacademic such as required physical education, required shop or home economics, and required art and music. One subject required daily throughout grades 7-12 in the Intermountain program is called "cultural studies." This period is concerned with problems of cultural adjustment which do not normally fit into the traditional subjects and which pose problems of personal development unique to most students enrolled in Bureau schools.

The first real opportunity for a student to choose electives starts in grade 9. Each succeeding year allows an increase in time devoted to elective subjects. By grades 11 and 12, five of the daily eight periods are devoted to electives. Thus, a vocational student

may choose an entire half day (4 periods) for vocational training in grades 11 and 12. He would still have one elective period besides the required English, Problems of Democracy (social studies) and Intermountain's required cultural studies.

In regard to electives, there are four functions which a comprehensive secondary school program should provide. A very cogent presentation on these points appears in the book entitled **Working to Learn** by Milton J. Gold, published in 1951 by the Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University.

First is the **vocational and academic advancement** function. A second function involves **academic enrichment**. This may be enrichment for more able students who can go unusually far or to greater depth in academic studies. At the other end of the scale are those whose academic enrichment involves remedial needs such as supervised study periods, remedial reading, remedial speech, and the like.

A third important function to adolescent children is the **exploratory function**. What is exploratory varies with the individual. For the student who has never taken music or art, for example, such a course would be exploratory to him.

Finally, there is the function of serving **special student interests**. For example, some students who have explored music appreciation find that they would like to go further and perhaps take instrumental music.

Counselors, school administrators, and teachers should devote some effort to presenting the menu of electives to the student body in terms of calling its attention to these four functions. In short, students should be encouraged to take advantage of vocational and academic advancement opportunities, enrichment opportunities, exploratory opportunities and, in some cases, opportunities for pursuing special interests. If emphasis is given to these functions in the curricular offerings, the school program is more likely to meet the developing needs of

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the students. This brings to mind a Navajo boy's version of an old maxim: A horse may not drink, but one should lead it to the water.

Now let us look briefly at each category.

Academic electives normally include such subjects as advanced mathematics, physics, chemistry, and the like.

Academic enrichment electives include such things as remedial reading, enriched reading, speech, dramatics, library, and supervised study periods. They (these electives) are intended to include enrichment courses also for less able students such as everyman's science, conversational English, etc. In addition, there could be more difficult courses such as special science courses and excursions into college freshman mathematics.

Exploratory electives include such subjects as special shop courses (mechanical drawing, plastics, electronics, etc.), typing, study of careers, vocational aptitudes, etc.

Special interest electives include such subjects as advanced art, instrumental music, driver training, vocational training, etc. Whether a subject is actually exploratory or special interest or academic enrichment to a particular student depends upon the student. The classification we have made is only to insure that the course of study planners take recognition of these categories of student needs. No prescriptions are made as to what categories of electives any youth must take.

However, no student is to be permitted to take electives in the category of academic electives which he cannot handle. For example, to take advanced algebra, he must have succeeded in the prerequisite elementary algebra, and must be able to maintain a passing grade. In contrast, remedial electives, exploratory and special interest electives are, for the most part, continuously adjusted to each individual.

It is hoped that such a comprehensive secondary program will hold more students in school for a longer period and will enable

each to achieve according to his ability.

9. LOOKING AHEAD: VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

NOT LONG AGO the Washington Office Branch of Education, was asked to describe the Bureau's program of vocational education for the benefit of several Federal agencies that were interested in the subject. We were glad to comply and when the project was completed it occurred to us that perhaps we had never before had occasion to present the program in quite so comprehensive a manner. Furthermore, there are frequent indications that vocational education is not well understood by the very people the Bureau's program is designed to serve. In the hope that a better understanding of it on the part of both Bureau employees and Indian leaders will result, we are describing the program in greatly telescoped form below.

1. BACKGROUND

The need. Nearly all Indian children and youth for whom the Bureau is responsible for educational services live in rural reservation communities. Many of these communities are depressed economically with inadequate resources, large families, low family income, and a shortage of wage work. Often, too, the communities are socially deprived and educationally disadvantaged; they are, on the average, little more than half as well educated as the general population.

While land constitutes the major physical resource of such communities and individuals, there usually is not enough of it, even when developed fully, to support all the people in comfort and dignity; capital for independent operation is hard to come by, and many Indians simply do not prefer to become farmers and stockmen. On the other hand, children coming from such disadvantaged communities often do not have the breadth

of experience and the motivation on which the school must build to prepare a student for the professions. There are, of course, notable exceptions to this to which the school must be alert.

There is a need, then, on the part of many Indian youth for well-developed, marketable, vocational skills which will permit them to enter and succeed in a wage economy. Otherwise, most Indian youth are handicapped in finding entree into the world of work.

The means. Vocational education of adequate depth is rarely available to Indian youth in their rural home communities. High schools in rural areas are usually relatively small and have a limited offering of courses. Good vocational education is too expensive for small schools to offer.

To meet this need, the Bureau operates a number of boarding vocational high schools and a special program (also boarding) for overage Indian youth. The more comprehensive vocational programs are in 12 large off-reservation boarding schools of about 1,000 pupils each; one has over 2,000 pupils. Less comprehensive programs are given in eight reservation boarding schools, and two reservation day schools, with about 500 enrollment each.

Most of the off-reservation schools are located in communities of sufficient size to permit the recruitment of qualified instructional personnel, some on-the-job training and advantageous job placement of graduates. Graduates possess marketable, vocational skills which represent a kind of personal capital, and have simultaneously acquired the requisite academic, social, and civic skills which will permit them to function in a wage economy.

II. PROGRAM PATTERN

AND PRINCIPLES

The pattern. The chart (see following page) shows the pattern of education as the pupil moves toward and through the vocational school. At the base is the child himself with his needs, his abilities, and his handicaps; some peculiarly his own, others which

he shares in common with his classmates. The next level depicts his early years in school where he acquires those basic learnings which all persons need for successful living and which are provided by a good elementary curriculum. Educational and vocational guidance begins in the later years of this stage.

At the third stage the student enters into a period of vocational exploration and orientation to the world of work, but academic and social learnings still comprise the major part of his program. Next is the decision-making stage when the student selects the specific vocation for which he wishes to train. He may feel he has sufficient interest and aptitude for college study; he may decide on a technical occupation which will very likely require training beyond high school; or, he may decide on a trade which does not make such heavy demands upon academic talent.

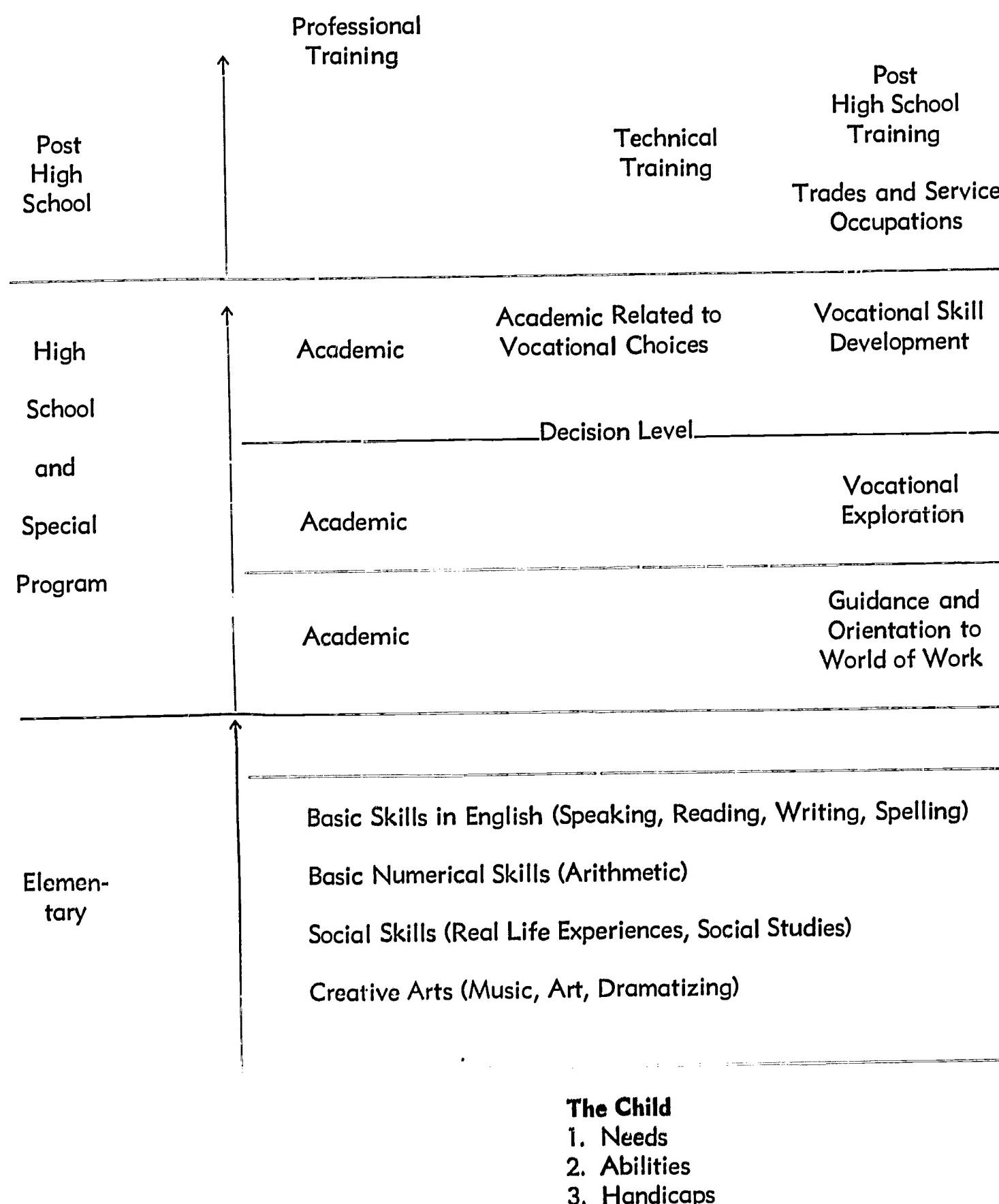
At the next to final stage he pursues the course of study which he (or she) has selected, but academic courses related to his vocational choice will remain a part of his program. At the final stage he either enters into further training beyond high school or enters directly the occupation for which he has trained.

Principles. There are a number of essential principles which, if followed, make the above-described pattern of education effective.

1. **Pupil Guidance.** Guidance aims at helping the pupil understand himself and providing him with the essential information so that he can make wise choices. It seeks to guide him, not dominate him. Such specialized educational and vocational guidance should begin not later than the seventh- or eighth-grade level, or its equivalent.

2. **Vocational Skills Alone Are Not Sufficient.** If graduates are to go far or succeed well they must have adequate language, numerical, and social skills which will permit them to adjust to the society in which

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they will be living and working. There is more to life than "making a living": family membership, citizenship, and life interests outside the job.

3. Not All Learning Takes Place in Classroom, Laboratory, or Shop. It occurs in the dormitory, the dining room, the play areas, and in club activities, as well as in non-Indian contacts outside the school. These must be utilized to the fullest.

4. Employment Opportunities and Demands Must Be Carefully Evaluated. This is essential both in planning the curriculum and in the vocational guidance of individual students. For example, blacksmithing and harnessmaking are obsolete, but electronics, air conditioning, and refrigeration are relatively new and in demand. In addition, the student should select the vocation in which he is interested and for which he has aptitude.

5. Job Placement Must Accompany Job Training. Unless this is done, the task is only half finished. This is indispensable to proper student motivation. Also, the school, through follow-up, should help the graduate adjust to his job and new living situation.

6. Placement Follow-up Will Influence School Program. It permits the "plowing back" of information gained into the improvement of the program.

Specific programs. While vocational education in the regular program and the special program differ in the number of years spent in school (twelve years in the regular program; five, six, or eight in the special program) they do not differ so far as the basic pattern of education is concerned.

1. The Regular Program. This is the traditional school program with eight years spent in the elementary grades. For most Indian pupils these years are spent in a public school, a mission school or a Bureau day school rather than in a Bureau vocational school. When the pupils enter a Bureau vocational school, the ninth grade, and to some extent the tenth grade, provide the ex-

ploratory and orientation phase referred to earlier. However, there is still a strong emphasis on academic learning. By the beginning of the eleventh grade the student should have made a vocational choice.

During the eleventh and twelfth grades the emphasis shifts to vocational training but with related academic learning continuing. If the student chooses a college preparatory course his study remains in the academic field. After graduation the graduate may enter college or advanced technical training, continue training in his trade, or enter the trade for which he has trained.

2. The Special Program. In the special program only from five to eight years of schooling are available to those overage students before they reach adulthood. This shortened time limits the scope and depth of education, of course, but does not basically alter the pattern of it. In the five-year program, for example, the basic language, numerical, and social learnings are accented in the first three years with vocational exploration and orientation being offered simultaneously but occupying a minor part of each day.

The student should make his vocational choice by the beginning of the fourth year. During the fourth and fifth years the major part of each day is devoted to vocational training but with some time devoted to related academic and social learnings.

Because of their greater maturity, learning may be accelerated for these students and while it does not have the depth and scope of the regular program, it can be highly functional.

III. THE RESULTS

The results of vocational education must be evaluated in terms of its original objectives—placing Indian youth in successful and gainful employment in an off-reservation wage economy. The results have been eminently satisfactory.

In the spring of 1958, 845 boys and girls graduated from Bureau high schools. Of these, 354, or nearly 42 percent, went on to

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training beyond high school, either college or vocational; 224, or 26.5 percent, immediately entered gainful employment. Of the remainder, 61 entered the armed services, 50 became fulltime housewives, and 10 were ill or deceased by the following year. Only 72, or 8.5 percent, were known to be unemployed and 74, or 8.75 percent, were not accounted for.

In 1959, the Special Program graduated 579 students. Since 1951, 3,362 students have completed this program. Evaluation over the years has shown that 73 percent enter and make a successful adjustment to off-reservation employment in steady jobs. Only 13 percent have returned to traditional reservation life.

IV. LOOKING AHEAD

For vocational education to remain static in the face of a dynamic and rapidly changing economy and society would be disastrous. Therefore, the Bureau constantly evaluates its vocational program in relation to changing conditions.

1. In recent years the Bureau has noted certain trends, has made judgments on the basis of these, and is now acting on them: (a) As a result of automated production and an increasingly complex technology the demand for unskilled labor is approaching the vanishing point. (b) The technology of today requires workers with a much better general education than was formerly necessary. (c) Employment opportunity in the future will be good for trained technicians, clerical and sales workers, and service workers. Demand for certain skilled trades will hold up well for a good many years. (d) Therefore, it is the Bureau's educational policy to place increased stress on academic learning through grade 10, especially in language skills and mathematics. Vocational training should be delayed until the last two years of high school and should increasingly be offered as post high school training.

2. Three out of 10 Indian children attend

Bureau schools. While Indian high school graduates are still about a year older, on the average, than those in the general population, they are one and one-half to two years younger than those of twenty years ago. As they approach the typical high school graduating age (between 17 and 18 years), it may be more important than ever that their post high school training take place in a planned school situation. Few 17-year-olds have reached full social and emotional maturity and the school must continue to meet these needs as well as purely vocational needs. This help may be particularly important to the Indian youth who are still trying to close an experiential gap. Perhaps certain of our nonreservation vocational schools should devote full attention to post high school vocational training.

3. Six out of 10 Indian children attend public schools. Most of these, whether elementary or secondary, are relatively small rural schools. All youth who attend them, Indian and non-Indian alike, will be affected by the new demands for better academic and vocational training which we have described. This will probably require an upgrading of the quality of rural public school education. This problem will require the best cooperative efforts of local, State, and Federal officials.

4. A youth does not acquire the background for complex and sophisticated vocational skills overnight. The youth who has tinkered with gasoline motors, radio, or electrical appliances in his home or community, as he was growing up, has a long head start in grasping the intricacies of technical training. Our schools need to find ways to supply this background experience for Indian children who do not get it at home—to coin a phrase, help them become "mechanically literate."

Good education does not just happen. The future is always dim enough at best, but at least we must use what light we have to see the path ahead.

10. AN IDEA INTO ACTION

IN THE 1953 SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS WORKSHOP the idea to develop minimum standards covering all school operations was proposed. The development of the idea from its initiation to the present has involved many interested persons at the Washington, Area, and local levels. The article that follows is a report of the development of an idea into action.

The distribution of **Minimum Standards for the Operation of Boarding Schools, Boarding Schools With Day Pupils, and Dormitory Schools** completes another step of an idea that was conceived at the 1953 Bureauwide summer workshop. A revision of the standards will be made after they have been tested thoroughly in all field situations. It is suggested that all employees acquaint themselves with this document.

AN IDEA IS PROPOSED

The administration group attending the 1953 inservice summer workshop went on record as favoring the development of minimum standards to govern school operations which could be used as a yardstick for measuring the effectiveness of school operations, and which could point up places where lack of funds prevented reaching the standards.

THE IDEA IS EXPLORED IN A LIMITED AREA

At this same meeting the group set up suggested staffing patterns to strengthen the guidance program. On September 8, 1953, a directive from the Commissioner authorized a pattern of organization for guidance and dormitory personnel written around the framework of "Bureau policy, organization, standards, guidelines, and objectives covering the operation of schools."

THE IDEA IS FURTHER EXPLORED, IMPLEMENTED, AND EVALUATED

During the summer of 1954, **basic standards for meals** to be served at Bureau

boarding schools were set up and were accepted at the October meeting of the area directors of schools. Funds necessary to meet these standards were reflected in the 1955 appropriation and schools were notified to follow the standards in the feeding program.

THE IDEA IS APPLIED TO OTHER AREAS OF THE PROGRAM

The acceptance of the standards for meals pointed up once more the needs for similar standards for all phases of boarding school operations. Approved standards would be used to determine the areas that were weak. The first point of attack in the preparation of standards was to review the staffing pattern in the various schools and determine, whenever possible, the relationship of ratio of employees to students. The number of buildings, the ages of students, the type of school, and other factors influence the number of employees needed, and it became evident very early in the work that standards would have to be expressed in broad terms in order to be able to apply them to any situation.

FURTHER RECOMMENDATIONS ARE MADE IN 1955

The 1955 summer workshop, conducted by the Bureau for area directors of schools, principals, and education specialists emphasized the unity of planning with the housekeeping branches in the Division of Administration. The group recommended the following:

"Education budget preparation and educational program should be based upon standards. A committee with field representation should be selected to finalize educational standards to be used as a basis for budgeting and programming of funds."

THE STANDARDS ARE DRAFTED AND SENT TO THE FIELD

In the fall of 1955, as an outcome of the workshop, a start was made on assembling all of the thinking on standards for all phases of the operation of Bureau boarding schools. A pattern was set up which has

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been followed throughout the work. Many conferences were held and many revisions were made before the first draft finally was accepted. In September 1956, dittoed copies of **Proposed Standards** were sent to Area Offices. These were reviewed by educational personnel and, in some cases, they were sent to Bureau schools for further study. These were returned to the Washington Office with criticisms and suggestions in the spring of 1957.

THE FIELD REACTS

The reaction to the **Proposed Standards** indicated that Area and school personnel were interested in the study and were willing to review any material prepared. Much valuable criticism and many good suggestions were received from the field as a result of this first review. All criticisms and suggestions were read and carefully tabulated. A new formula for estimating the staffing pattern for the dormitories was proposed which included consideration of the number and sizes of dormitory buildings as well as the number of children housed in a building. This formula is used in the current standards.

THE STANDARDS ARE REDRAFTED

The second draft, **Tentative Standards**, was multilithed in April 1957 and these were discussed with administrators at the summer workshop. Nineteen schools were selected by the area directors of schools to try out the standards during the 1957-58 school year. Many of the schools devoted time during weekly staff meetings for study of the standards, while other schools had key personnel review them critically. In every case the staff tried to pick out the flaws and problems which would arise in applying the standards to particular schools. At the end of the year, each school involved in the study made a report of its findings. These were forwarded to the Washington Office and were reviewed carefully. Suggestions that applied to one situation only were rejected. All others were tabulated and combined with suggestions received from

the education specialists who had also evaluated the standards.

THE STANDARDS ARE TRIED

The third draft was approved at the Washington Office and published in August 1959 as **Minimum Standards for the Operation of Boarding Schools, Boarding Schools With Day Pupils, and Dormitory Schools**.

Sufficient copies have been mailed so that every school falling in any one of these categories can use the standards during the school year 1959-60. The future value of the standards is dependent upon the criticisms from these schools.

The first draft (**Proposed Standards—1956**) included tables of cost for (a) carrying out the recommended staffing pattern; (b) furnishing and equipping classrooms, dormitories, administration offices, kitchens, dining rooms, and other areas, together with a yearly replacement value; and (c) purchasing supplies used in all operations. In order for these figures to be of any value, they were expressed as the cost of one pupil for one school year. Before making the second draft, (**Tentative Standards—1957**), it was decided that accounting records failed to furnish information which could substantiate the costs listed under (b) and (c) above and for that reason cost tables were eliminated. Another review before the present draft, (**Minimum Standards—1959**), brought the same objection for category (a) and this was also deleted. As a result, the present standards cannot be used for budget preparation because there are no accepted figures for per capita cost based on the standards. It may be that sufficient information can be accumulated before the next revision so that tables of cost again can be included. Until this is done, the standards have not met one of the primary objectives.

THE RESULTS ARE EVIDENT

Since 1953, many improvements in the operation of Bureau schools can be attributed directly to the work and field participation that has gone into the development of

standards. A few of them are as follows:

1. New staffing patterns were set up for the improvement of the guidance and dormitory program (Commissioner's Memorandum—September 8, 1953).
2. Additional funds were appropriated in 1955 and included each year following for the purchasing food to meet the accepted standards.
3. School administrators were alerted to the need for budgeting sufficient funds to furnish and supply classrooms and dormitories adequately.
4. School administrators pointed out that the accounting system did not furnish sufficient information to price the standards and arrive at a revised per capita cost for the operation of schools.
5. Additional funds were obtained in the 1959 appropriation to start the reclassification of dormitory attendants and some of the teacher-advisers.
6. The title of Dormitory Attendant was changed to Instructional Aid (Child Guidance) GS-3, 4, and 5 (1959). This was a part of the pattern to improve the guidance and dormitory program.
7. Positions of night attendants for the dormitories were approved and description of duties prepared.
8. Additional funds were requested in the 1960 appropriation to increase the number of department heads (guidance) and teacher-advisers; to complete the reclassification of dormitory attendants; to provide night attendants; and to provide clerical help for the guidance departments.
9. The cost accounting structure for the operation of schools was revised (March 31, 1959) in relation to the standards developed by the Branch of Education.

11. SCHOOL EQUIPMENT IS RELATED TO EDUCATION

FOR A SCHOOL FACILITY to be well planned and equipped it should be de-

signed with the educational program in mind. It is, therefore, most important that the designers have detailed information in regard to the functions which are to take place within a facility. They must know if these functions take place daily; occasionally; with all the children at a time; whether the rooms are to be used for a utility purpose only (such as a boiler room) or for a teaching and learning situation. Other related factors are the physical maturity of the children who will use the facilities, the teaching techniques to be used, and a knowledge of child psychology.

For example, very young children because of their immaturity are not expected to wash, iron, and mend their own clothing. Consequently, in planning a dormitory which will house only very young children, one laundry room may be sufficient for the building, and designed primarily for use by an attendant. On the other hand, with older children, the care of clothing and good grooming is a part of the learning process. Older children should learn how to operate and care for washing machines; how to sort their clothing, and to wash white clothing separately from colored clothing; what clothing can be washed and drip-dried; what clothing may look better starched and ironed. They must learn how to mend their clothing, and how to store clean clothing until needed. Since a great deal of activity takes place in the laundry room for older children, more laundry rooms must be considered for the dormitory housing such a group. These laundry rooms, therefore, must be more extensively equipped than the one in the dormitory housing only very young children.

Again, a dormitory should provide not only shelter for a child but it must offer a great deal more. It should provide a place for a child to relax; a place where he can live as an individual as well as a member of a group. To meet these requirements, the building and equipment should provide

facilities for the child to keep his individual articles of clothing and other possessions. It is, therefore, necessary that the child have a locker; at least one drawer in a dresser; a desk where he may sit and write, put together a puzzle he alone is interested in, or study. He needs a place to display his pictures, a place to keep his books, a chair rather than a bed on which to sit when away from the large group.

As a member of the group, the child will need other facilities within the building. He needs a place to visit with and to entertain his friends (a living room and a kitchenette) and a place to play with others (a playroom).

Since a dormitory is a child's home rather than just a shelter, it also must provide facilities whereby he learns as a member of a family group to assume his share of the "chores" **according to his physical abilities**. Cleaning facilities, even if only a waste paper basket for the very young child, and if old enough, certain laundry and sewing facilities for learning to care for his own clothing are therefore important.

The dormitory should offer such facilities that a child looks forward to coming home each evening after school, perhaps because he wants to finish a painting he has started, a rug he is weaving, a book he has started to read, or to hear a special program he enjoys on the radio, television, or record player. He should enjoy the beauty and comfort of his dormitory, the association and experiences it offers him to such an extent that when he leaves this "school home" he is willing to go out into the world to "work and sweat" to earn similar things for his own home.

With this educational program in mind, the Branches of Education and Plant Design and Construction have developed definitive drawings showing the basic requirements of certain types of schools, dormitories, kitchens, and dining rooms. These drawings show the approximate area of the room for a defined number of children; and in some

cases the relationship of the room to other rooms in the building; the arrangement and sizes of large pieces of equipment needed for the performance of the functions to take place within the room. These drawings define to architects, school personnel, and others the needs the unit is to fulfill. After studying the definitive drawings and determining the needs, the architect then plans the new facility with these requirements in mind.

Few buildings are complete without equipment. As the definitive drawings were developed, discussions were held continuously regarding the equipment needed for the various rooms. Would certain pieces of equipment be best built-in or should they be movable? What sizes should the equipment be? How should the equipment be arranged to serve best the functions performed within the room? As a result of considering such questions, lists of equipment, shown by a definitive drawing, began to grow for each room.

The listing of the equipment was only the beginning. Questions soon began to arise: What type of equipment best serves the purposes? Where can it be obtained? What quality is available? What sizes, what finishes, and at what cost? The selection of schoolroom furniture, kitchen equipment, and household furniture are all highly specialized fields. Considering the many brands of equipment manufactured, one can see readily that no one can be a specialist in all angles of the equipment business. Help was obtained from many, many people who were specialists in their own particular fields such as cooks, bakers, food specialists, teachers, librarians, vocational instructors, supervisors, principals, superintendents, area directors of schools, restaurant operators, hotel supply companies, salesmen, interior decorators, furniture manufacturers and distributors, public school officials, General Services Administration officials, and many others.

As the work on the definitive drawings

and the listing of the equipment proceeded, numerous conferences were held by members of the Branches of Education and Plant Design and Construction to endorse the work done or to effect needed changes. In June 1957 the definitive drawings and the equipment lists were presented for consideration to a joint meeting of school administrators and members of the Branch of Plant Design and Construction at the Intermountain School. A committee was appointed to study the equipment lists, and it was then, that the lists and the definitive drawings were accepted as standards. Since that time several additional equipment lists have been referred to the committee members.

After acceptance of the work, conferences were held with General Services Administration personnel to explain what items were needed, and the purpose each was to serve. General Services Administration assigned stock numbers to the various items on the standard equipment list to simplify ordering them.

Work is constantly being done on the equipment list. While the items do not change, color, material, or size may, thus calling for close contact with General Services Administration.

It was agreed at the Intermountain meeting of June 1957, that the equipment list would be presented for revision in June of 1959. Notes are being kept on suggestions and it is hoped that all personnel who attend will bring recommendations to this meeting.

Equipment standards offer numerous advantages. They permit more accurate preparation of estimates for new equipment and those items which must be replaced; they offer a means for more equitable distribution of funds; they enable General Services Administration to buy in large quantities and, thus, more economically.

While no standards entirely meet all situations, personal tastes and desires should meet basic requirements, if they are periodically reviewed and revised.

The standards now being used were developed for elementary schools and do not meet the needs of secondary schools in all respects. Neither do they meet all the needs of rehabilitation of existing equipment. In new construction, the building contractor provides the lockers, desks, and bookshelves for dormitory cubicles. He also installs mirrors, consequently these items as well as some others are not on the equipment list.

It is planned that the definitive drawings and the equipment lists will soon be published and distributed to the various Agencies of the Indian Bureau as well as to private architects involved in planning Bureau educational facilities. The material should also prove a valuable guide in upgrading existing facilities.

12. TEACHING PAR EXCELLENCE

I WISH that I could discuss with each of you personally your teaching career. Since this is not possible, I have chosen the pages of **Indian Education** to talk with you.

As you well know, teachers in the Bureau of Indian Affairs have had no opportunity for promotion above the GS-7 grade level. Many teachers have preferred classroom work, yet they have had no choice except to leave it if they wanted any worthwhile increase in salary.

This situation has now changed. You may be promoted to the grade of GS-9 without leaving the teaching field if your performance measures up to certain criteria of excellence.

A great deal of thought and preparation has gone into the development of the criteria that will be used as a guide to determine excellence. The development of the criteria has not been easy. All suggestions were considered and weighed. The final guide represents the thinking of several hundred people: teachers, supervisors, principals, and personnel officials. The process has been

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deliberate rather than hasty to develop the best procedures possible.

Length of service was given consideration, but this in itself was discarded as a measure of excellence. It is true that the longer one teaches the more opportunity he has to improve, through experience, his teaching skills. On the other hand, years of experience taken alone might represent mere repetition year after year of mediocre performance. Therefore, it was decided that length of service alone was not an adequate measure of excellence.

Consideration was also given to degrees beyond the bachelor level. Here, again, degrees alone do not necessarily guarantee excellence. The degrees should indicate good preparation for teaching, but the real test is how well the teacher puts to use what he gained from his work toward degrees. It was also determined that degrees alone were not a valid measure of excellence.

Using length of service and additional degrees as the criteria would have been the easiest way to administer the GS-9 program. But, the objective of the program does not relate to ease of administration. The objective is to recognize the evidence in teaching that is the hallmark of excellence.

How then does one recognize excellence? What would you look for in excellent teaching? How does one describe an excellent teacher? The description was finally developed as shown below. An excellent teacher is:

- A director of learning
- A counselor
- A mediator of the culture
- A respected member of the community
- A cooperative, contributing member of the staff
- A credit to the profession
- A good personal model for pupils

If you were to describe your own teaching performance in relationship to each of the above points, what evidence could you record to support the facts that you have attained a level of excellence?

Many teachers, I am sure, have already achieved that level. Many others with help will be able to achieve it. All will have an opportunity to achieve it.

Several merit systems have been tried in public schools. Some have failed; others have not. Bureau teachers and supervisors have the challenge to prove that the merit system can succeed. We have a wonderful opportunity to demonstrate how a difficult program can be carried out if we but approach this task with an open mind. The plan will succeed if we keep before us its value to the improvement of instruction.

The summer months will afford a quiet and undisturbed time for guidance, consultation, and analysis of individual performance by each teacher and his supervisor. It will be a time to talk over together what the teacher has done or what he can do to merit the extra grade. This, to be of benefit to both teacher and supervisor, should be done in a spirit of cooperation and with faith in each other's fairness and sincerity.

Now, let us return to you, the teacher. Teaching is hard work. It takes much out of you physically, mentally, and emotionally. Teaching drains one's energy day after day. These closing days, when you are harried with tests and grades and report cards, when you are hurried to get all done that must be done before the graduation exercises, you often vow that you will never teach another year once you get through this one. But you are a teacher—and being a teacher, you will teach again. With a few weeks' vacation, you will be looking forward to next year's opening day with more anticipation than you now look to this year's closing. Teaching is your life—without it you could not be you.

Many of you have seen several school years such as this one begin and end. You have helped to educate many Indian children. You have helped them struggle from their first few English words to greater fluency in English. You have helped to guide and mold their character. You have pro-

vided them with wholesome social activities to develop in them grace and charm. You have fired your pupils with intellectual curiosity and ambition. You have encouraged them to aspire to goals that are high, and then you have helped them reach their aspirations. You have set a good example in your own living. Many of you are teachers par excellence. Others will soon be teachers par excellence.

2. Gather evidence to support new or needed standards.
3. Furnish techniques to the school staff for continued self-evaluation and improvement in meeting standards.
4. Furnish objective appraisal as "outsiders" but able as "insiders" to put the staff at ease about why we should improve our programs, and our goals while thinking together as individuals and groups.

To see how evaluation stimulates cooperative effort and motivates improvement, we will review how it has worked in Oklahoma where team evaluation took place and school self-followup has been going on.

The typical team was composed of education specialists in their respective fields of curriculum, research, guidance, home economics, and vocations.

The team had first assembled and duplicated existing standards along with others which seemed desirable. Copies were sufficient in number to distribute to each school staff member. A week's time was allowed for meetings at small schools and two weeks were allotted for large schools.

The team met with the area director of schools, the school head, department heads, and staff members, in the order named, to secure understanding and to refine the procedures to be followed in appraising progress toward standards and in making recommendations.

The meetings with staff employees were in accordance with a schedule arranged with the school head. The area director of schools, the school head, and the department heads were ex-officio members as the team met with employees of a department.

Standards pertinent to each department were discussed informally while the team sat as a panel. Upon completion of the schedule, the findings and recommendations were duplicated and made available in ample supply in order that the staff could use the report as the basis for planned improvement.

13. EVALUATION MOTIVATES IMPROVEMENT

A STUDENT OR AN EMPLOYEE likes to know how well he is doing oftener than we are able to tell him. If a school could speak it would want to know this same thing. Since we are in the business we need to know how well our schools are doing. Periodic evaluation is the answer, and standards are the measuring sticks. How to use best these tools is something we can all help to determine.

In past evaluations of school programs, we have attempted to use standard criteria from which an important ingredient was omitted—participation of the local school administrator and staff in appraising the standards themselves. This ingredient we hope to include in future evaluations.

The chief aim of school program evaluation is **to secure field participation at the operating level in developing standards to be used as a basis for program planning.**

In carrying out this aim the use of specialists as a team has proven effective in securing understanding at all levels within an Area as to the full importance of standards as they relate to program planning and improvement.

As the plan has been carried out so far a team of Bureau education specialists has been able to:

1. Focus attention at all levels on existing standards.

It is evident from followup progress reports that school staff committees have followed a plan which involves:

1. Establishing priority for improvement toward certain standards
2. Setting down goals under each standard
3. Placing responsibility for reporting progress by departments and committees
4. Establishing a uniform method of reporting
5. Documenting and distributing progress reports to all concerned
6. Adopting a procedure for annual self-evaluation.

The outcomes have been most gratifying and have produced benefits in the form of improved morale, improved cooperative effort toward education for Indian children, and have strengthened justifications for program improvement and needs. Continued high standards have resulted from this group effort with resultant pride in measured progress.

The boarding schools of Fort Sill, Riverside, Chilocco, and Sequoyah in Oklahoma are well started in their evaluation program. Chemawa also deserves mention as being among the first to profit by the team's evaluation.

In conclusion, we must observe that evaluation with the assistance of a team of specialists avoids the pitfalls of strictly self-evaluation which include: the temptation to justify activities rather than to determine how well we are doing, the yielding to local tradition or local indifference, emphasizing phases instead of the whole program, etc. It should be pointed out, too, that the type of evaluation we have in mind does not compare one school with another or attempt to embarrass individuals or departments.

What we seek is a spirit of inquiry and unified effort that permits frankness and a realistic approach to what has been determined to be the problems of the school.

14. INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS FOR BUREAU SCHOOLS

THE Bureau of Indian Affairs operates 283 installations to provide educational opportunities for 46,177 Indian children whose needs require special educational attention. This places on Bureau staff the responsibility for a sound instructional program to give Indian youth, many of whom must learn English as a second language, educational competency for living in the 20th century. This means that programs must operate at well-established standards to provide Indian children and youth with the special instruction necessary to meet their needs.

During the past 10 years, a great deal of study, research, and effort has gone into the development of standards to guide Federal school operations. Area directors of schools have discussed and determined the standards which should receive highest priority; all concerned with the budget process have assembled data to justify funds for financing better standards; and Congress has financed the upgrading of certain standards. It becomes the responsibility of all to maintain the standards of operation that have received the attention and approval of Congress. The following reviews briefly the standards that have been reached and should be maintained.

The standard for providing a well-balanced feeding program in Federal schools was the first one financed and effected. The second standard, adequate staffing of dormitories, has been partially achieved. The third standard made provision for financing a merit teacher program to improve the quality of instruction.

We now come to a fourth standard: adequate instructional materials. This fourth standard has been partially financed, and generally speaking, operators servicewide are maintaining this standard at approximately half of what is considered adequate.

The present status results from the fact that often instructional supplies are given a lower priority when funds are not adequate to maintain all facets of the educational program at desirable standards. Fixed costs eat heavily into the budget, and sometimes it is easier to reduce the instructional materials item in a budget than to make adjustments elsewhere.

Since instructional supplies compete for priority with other budget items, questions may well be raised regarding needs: What are the needs? Why are they needed? How much will it cost to provide teachers with instructional materials they should have?

The answers to these and similar questions bring varied responses. If a teacher who is satisfied with following one or two textbooks is asked, his or her response is quite different from the response of a teacher who makes use of a wealth of instructional materials. If a school administrator who has not kept pace with the needs of today is asked, his response is far different from the administrator who searches for new teaching tools to improve instruction in his school. If an administrator who gives efficient automotive equipment higher priority than efficient teaching is asked, his answer is different from the administrator who sees quality instruction as the most important facet of the school program.

What is required to do an effective teaching job? A school must have an adequate library: library books, reference materials, periodicals, newspapers. The American Library Association recommends an expenditure of \$6 per pupil to maintain an established library.

At least \$5 per pupil is required to maintain an adequate supply of textbooks. Pencils, paper, art supplies, scissors, paste, etc., are also required for a good instructional program, and \$7-\$10 per pupil is required for such items.

In addition, science equipment and supplies are necessary for an adequate science program; home economics supplies are

needed; boys vocational classes have their own special needs; music supplies and band instruments are needed for rich music programs; for small children a wealth of materials is needed—craft supplies, modeling clay, finger paints, building blocks, saws and hammers, sewing materials, aquariums, picture books, games, toys—if teachers are to have the proper instructional tools for a lively instructional program at the primary level. The physical fitness program requires equipment and appropriate clothing.

A study was made in 1955 of public school expenditures and of the recommendations of the American Library Association, National Education Association, the Office of Education, and of our own Bureau operations. As a result of these studies, it was determined that an average expenditure of \$40 per pupil is required to maintain the variety of materials needed at the high school or the elementary level if Bureau schools expect to meet the special needs of Indian children. (This figure is based on 1955 prices.)

This figure may come as a shock to many people, especially to those who have felt that \$15 or \$20 or \$30 was an adequate per-pupil expenditure. If this is true in your case, it is suggested you make the following appraisal of your school:

1. Do the teachers have an adequate supply of tape recorders so that the children can practice English? (There should be a tape recorder in every classroom in grades four and above if sufficient practice is carried on.)
2. How many volumes in your library? How many should you have for your enrollment? How current is our reference materials? How nearly does your library meet the Bureau's library standards? (See the recently published leaflet **How Good Is Your Library?**)
3. Do you have models for teaching physiology? Do you have an adequate supply of globes and maps for geography teaching?

4. Do you have supplies available for teacher-made instructional materials: reading charts, tapes, slides?
5. Do you have a variety of arts and crafts materials?
6. Do you have many types of science materials and equipment?
7. Have you an up-to-date supply, in variety, of textbooks?
8. Do you have the filmstrips that accompany many of today's textbooks?
9. Do you have band instruments, records, record players, and music tapes for an adequate music program?
10. Do you have everyday supplies that are required by teachers and pupils: paper, pencils, notebooks?
11. Do you have the great variety of materials that every primary teacher needs for an active and challenging program for small children?

Similar questions could be asked regarding the special vocational materials needed for high school instruction and for the physical fitness and athletic programs.

If, annually, you procure the variety of materials these questions indicate, you will find that \$20 per pupil will not cover the cost. If you do not have this variety of materials, most likely you are seriously jeopardizing the quality of your instructional program.

In summing up, the quality of your program today is directly related to the educational competency of your pupils when they reach adulthood.

15. MATERIALS CENTER— CHOCTAW AGENCY

EVERWHERE, THE NEEDS of people are multiplying. Schools accept the challenge of meeting the needs of learners and preparing them for an understanding of their place in the human community and for world citizenship.

Science has suddenly made it imperative

that we meet these needs more rapidly, more efficiently, and more effectively. The steady progress of the ages has now become rapid progress. As educators, we must use the best materials available in preparing learners for living in this turbulent but fascinating world.

With the special needs of the Choctaw Indians in mind, a materials center was conceived—a mobile unit carrying instructional materials to the seven Choctaw Indian schools and communities near Philadelphia, Mississippi. The materials center is a traveling library which also includes other instructional materials such as filmstrips, phonograph records, a torso, a planetarium, pictures, pamphlets, binoculars, and games. This type of service helps to make the learning process more meaningful, more enjoyable, and more effective for teachers and pupils in the Choctaw school system.

There was much careful planning on the part of the education personnel before the materials center became a reality. In this early planning for a better Choctaw school system, it was felt that a mobile materials center with a trained librarian would be much more fruitful than the small school or classroom libraries. The accessibility of the seven Choctaw schools was another factor in favor of a mobile unit serving all schools. In this way teachers and learners would have access to regular school library service; children would have the opportunity of learning how to use a library; and more materials could be made available. With greater resources, school activities could be carried on more successfully. With a librarian visiting the classrooms regularly, there would be a greater opportunity for fostering the love of good books, for acquaintance with a greater variety of books, for the securing of more instructional materials. All this planning by the education staff, combined with teacher and pupil interest and the enthusiastic support of the Mississippi Library Commission was necessary before the red and yellow bookmobile with its unique Indian designs

rolled into headquarters at Pearl River Indian School.

This materials center is a very flexible unit. Along with the many new and colorful books, there are other interesting features—a card catalog, which allows phonograph records and filmstrips, as well as books, to be located through subject; a filmstrip projector and a portable phonograph to assist teachers in the selection of filmstrips and phonograph records; picture and pamphlet files; and a magazine compartment. Fans in summer and electric heaters in winter keep the inside temperature enjoyable. A small vacuum cleaner helps with the housekeeping. The driver seat can be reversed, thus making it possible for two people to sit at the charging desk to help with the necessary clerical work. The outside shelving has many possibilities. Its five-compartment shelving with built-in bulletin boards and pegboard is very useful in displaying school-work and crafts. It is a big—and busy—unit when school is in session.

During school sessions, the materials center is at one of the schools every other day. On alternate days, the librarian works at headquarters at Pearl River School. At the larger schools it takes the full day to get the work done, while only a half day or less is spent at the smaller schools. It takes two weeks to complete a schedule to all the schools.

When the bookmobile, as the materials center is called, arrives at a school and the setting-up process is completed, the librarian is free to start classwork. The librarian goes to the classroom and conducts a story hour, a book talk, or an introduction of new materials to the class. Then, the boys and girls go in groups of about ten to fifteen to the bookmobile to select books. This story hour or book talk period has been a very happy experience. The children look forward with pleasure to story time, and the book talks have stimulated wider reading interests for them.

From 3:00 p.m. to 4:00 p.m. is the teachers' hour. They come to the materials center

to explore its resources and take for a 2-week period the materials they need in their work. In addition to the materials listed previously, there are professional magazines, pamphlets, and books for the teachers.

Student participation is gratifying. They check books in and out on the bookmobile. Each room selects two student librarians who care for the classroom book collection and return the books to the bookmobile.

The junior high school library at the Pearl River School houses the "feeder station" of the bookmobile, as well as the junior high school library collection. This feeder station provides a large collection of books on which the materials center may draw to meet the demands of seasonal interests, special studies in the classrooms, and particular interests of its patrons.

An adult education program for the Choctaw people is in its early stages of development. Plans are in progress for the adult classes to have access to the materials center. A few adults come to the schools on the day the bookmobile is scheduled and check out books. Government documents, pamphlets, and books on many interest levels are available to the adult Choctaw people.

The librarian with suggestions from teachers selects the books and materials. A constant search is made for high-interest, low-vocabulary reading material. Since the library patrons are reading in a language which is not their native tongue, it is necessary to have a simple vocabulary for much of the reading material. Book reviews from many available sources aid greatly in book selection. Visits to and review of the book collections of the Mississippi State Library Commission, the Library Division of the Mississippi State Department of Education, and Meridian and Jackson Public Libraries have been invaluable to the librarian in building up a book collection.

Some results of the materials center program are intangible at this early evaluation.

However, steady progress has been made in the two years of operation as evidenced by a greater variety of classroom activities, better teacher morale, a savings of time in ordering and securing materials, increased use of English by learners, greater dissemination of ideas among teachers, and a quickening of interest of adult Indians in the whole educational program. Circulation figures for books and materials have more than doubled in the year just passed. Whatever its future, the bookmobile has been in operation long enough to indicate its possibilities for developing an atmosphere for learning sufficiently challenging to raise the educational, social, and economic standards of the Choctaw people.

16. MATERIALS CENTER REVISITED

SOME TIME AGO Indian Education carried an article on the Mississippi Choctaw Agency's mobile materials center. The author discussed the agency's aims in setting up the center, how it operates, and some of the effects it is having on the education of Indians in that agency.

We are happy to report that the materials center continues to roll along. Using the slogan "It's No Use To Us Unless It's Used" the center's activities have been expanded for the benefit of its patrons.

The services of the center include interest-reading materials for boys and girls of all ages, research books to supplement classroom textbooks, professional literature for teachers and administrators, instructional materials for units of classroom work, audiovisual materials, models, and educational games for leisure-time activities.

A comparison between services performed during 1959 and those performed in 1960 reveals the continuing growth of the center in terms of increased use of the facility:

	1959	1960
Number of miles traveled	3,098	3,277
Number of classroom visits ..	318	342
Number of classes checking out books and materials	433	394
Number of adult clas~s checking out books	23	31
Number of teachers checking out books	408	499
Circulation		
Books from center	19,235	20,646
Professional magazines ..	331	508
Pamphlets	615	1,069
Pictures	919	978
Phonograph records	1,260	1,561
Filmstrips	3,526	3,373

Imagine how this increased use affected school programs at the Choctaw Agency. At one time the small schools did not have, nor could they be expected to have, the amount of library materials equal to a large school. Their reading programs could not have the depth or scope of a larger school equipped with an adequate library. This has changed! Books, instructional materials, and games are available now on a scale comparable to much larger schools as a result of the center.

Values have accrued, in the form of improved student reading achievement, improved teaching, and richer, fuller living for students, teachers, and citizens of the community. The following quotes from Choctaw Agency teachers will attest to these benefits: "The interest created by actually seeing and selecting the books themselves carried over into all phases of their school work." "Several mornings I walked into my room before school hours and found a group of children reading. They had chosen to read instead of playing on the playground." "The parents enjoy reading the books too. I notice some parents have bought books for their children since they have experienced visits from the materials center."

Additional values have permeated the community. Adults have increased their volume of reading, proper care of books has

been taught, reading aloud at home encouraged, and new hobbies introduced.

One of the most popular phases of the center's program in 1960 was the story-telling hour. Boys and girls enthusiastically participated in the story hour. These richly descriptive stories were augmented by audio-visual materials that made the hour even more rewarding and enriching. Besides being fun, the story hour had other educational benefits. The children were helped to develop poise and confidence, to use good techniques of speaking, and to increase their command of English.

Another important adjunct of the center's program has been the formation of library clubs. Some of these clubs are affiliated with the Library Club of America and the Student Library Association of Mississippi. Club members perform such valuable services to their schools and the materials center as checking books in and out, shelving books, and looking after books that are overdue. Again we have gains beyond the benefits of the function itself, attitudes are being formed by these youngsters that could make lifelong association with books a pleasure. Also, this is an excellent means to promote friendly associations between Indians and non-Indian groups in the community.

We extend congratulations to the employees of the Choctaw Agency who have helped to make the materials center a success.

17. INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS CENTER

YOU HAVE BEEN URGED to analyze your school program to determine if your teaching and your curriculum are keeping pace with the rapid expansion of knowledge taking place in this decade. Perhaps, as a staff member, you have attempted to answer some of the questions raised, as they apply to your school and your work. No doubt, by this time, you have assured your-

self that you are more than a "chipper of stones." You are a builder of cathedrals. Like all cathedral builders you need materials and tools to do an adequate educational job.

The Bureau of Indian Affairs puts great emphasis on the improvement of standards as a means of improving the quality of education. This emphasis applies to both instructional standards and school-building standards. A great deal of attention has been given in the design of school plants to provide you with better educational laboratories. Officials of the Branch of Education and the Branch of Plant Design and Construction met in May of this year to discuss and formulate basic standards with respect to space, facilities, and equipment that would become acceptable standards in Bureau of Indian Affairs schools. These standards will be translated into design criteria that will be required in future Bureau school construction. Each employee of the Branch of Education should familiarize himself with these standards, particularly as to how they relate to his work. When the design criteria are published, they can be used in staff meetings for discussion and study purposes. Thought should be given to the proper use of the facilities when they are provided; otherwise, their instructional value will be wasted. For example, if the isolation room is used for storage instead of isolating the child with a cough or the child who needs quiet and rest, the isolation room is wasted and children are denied access to a facility provided to protect their health. If the living room is kept locked as a way of preserving it in its pristine condition instead of teaching children how to use and care for it properly, a costly facility is wasted and children are denied the opportunity to learn social responsibility.

An entirely new feature has been incorporated into school facilities; namely, an instructional materials center. This feature is intended to be the heart of the school and it

will be if properly used. The materials center includes the library, the librarian's workroom and the library stacks, a teachers' workroom where teachers and students can prepare charts, slides, and various types of illustrations and teaching aids. In addition, there are storage spaces for projectors, television sets, and radios, as well as a small room for previewing slides, filmstrips, and a teachers' lounge and conference rooms.

From this center can be circulated and recirculated the instructional lifeblood of the school. In it will be the aids that give meaning to abstract learning. For example, instruction concerning the function of the heart, the liver, and lungs can be made far more meaningful if the instruction is accompanied by the use of a model torso to show the location and relationship of the organs of the body. This one torso can be used over and over to teach many children. The life in other countries can become far more real when students actually see or prepare exhibits that illustrate the country, listen to music typical of the country, and see slides and films that picture the life of the people. A well-stocked library with a well-trained librarian, side by side with a good supply of up-to-date audiovisual materials and a staff knowing how to use these materials in conjunction with the library, will bring life and meaning to instruction. The instructional materials center will be provided for that purpose.

The initial investment in this center increases the cost of school construction. If the center is properly used, this cost will be repaid many times over in the educational development of Indian children. If it is not used, or it is improperly used, the additional cost will be wasted.

To assure proper understanding and use of the instructional materials center, an intensive inservice training program will be needed. This training program should be given in two phases: first, pretraining prior to the construction of the facility and, second, inservice training upon completion of

the facility. Then pretraining should begin this school year to acquaint each employee with the materials center layout, what it will contain, and its use in relationship to instruction.

Educational supervisors in each Area, including area directors of schools, are urged to study the layout of this facility, the types of materials that should be provided, and the ways teachers and other school employees can be helped to make full use of it. A mock-up, drawn to scale, showing the arrangement of the instructional materials center has been prepared by the Branch of Plant Design and Construction. This mock-up can be used by educational supervisors as a visual aid to develop an understanding of the importance of this instructional complex and the proper use of it.

Training in advance of construction at both the Area level and the operating level will include, in addition to study of the layout of facilities, a study of the equipment and the materials required for the center to function. The mock-up, pictures of the mock-up, and equipment lists will be available for study and discussion purposes. The Washington Office Education Specialist (Library) and the Education Specialist (Visual Aids) of the Field Technical Unit will be available to help each Area plan its pretraining sessions.

When construction of the instructional materials center is completed at each school, an intensive inservice training session should be given at that particular school. Area education staff can participate with the appropriate education specialists of the Washington Office in planning and conducting inservice training sessions for school personnel before this center is opened. This will give each school employee an opportunity to learn how to make the fullest use of this facility and to contribute his ideas as to additional materials that should go into the center. Care of equipment, as well as proper use, will be emphasized.

As indicated earlier, the instructional

materials center must receive its adequate share of the annual budget to make it function as it should. This does not necessarily mean all new funds. Instead it will require adjustment of funds and administrative choices with respect to relative emphasis in the educational program. As an example, transportation problems that now require a certain number of pickup trucks perhaps can be met by consolidating transportation, thus freeing for the instructional materials center a certain share of funds now used for capital outlay and upkeep of motor vehicles. These choices will require answers to such questions as: Is it absolutely necessary to have a standby pickup for transportation of supplies? Is it essential to have a standby vehicle for transportation of sick children that is used only occasionally? Can these emergencies be met satisfactorily in other ways, thus freeing some of the funds for the instructional materials center which will be used all the time for many children by many teachers? San savings be effected by a standard menu that will free some funds for the annual upkeep of the instructional materials center?

If your school is scheduled for a new school building which includes an instructional materials center, it is time now to begin your study and discussions about its proper use. How much of the annual budget will be required to maintain the materials center? What will be needed to staff the center properly to keep it available for individual use as well as group use by both teachers and pupils during and after school hours? What adjustments in funds and staff will be needed to make the center contribute fully to better education?

The instructional materials center will be the heart of your educational program if it is properly used. It will provide a laboratory for good teaching. It will give school employees an opportunity to bring greater strength to their teaching at a period in the development of Indian people when the quality of teaching may spell the difference between

success and failure of many Indian youth.

18. IT COULD BE TRUE

AS A TEACHER, I want my school library or materials center located near the main concentration of classrooms, but not too close to noisy areas such as shops, playgrounds, or band room. Both an inside and an outside entrance are desirable—the outside entrance being preferable for Saturday, Sunday, and evening use.

I want my library center to be clean and attractively arranged with good lighting and seating. It should provide seating space for one class plus 1-20 extra pupils, allowing a minimum of 25 sq. ft. per person. Besides evidence of charm and good taste in decoration, there will be an informal corner that attracts with its look of beauty and comfort.

I want to find books and pamphlets, slides and filmstrips, tapes and records that are organized in some fashion, preferably Dewey Decimal or a simplified version thereof—to eliminate haphazard searching. ("A book out of place is a lost book"—so goes the old saying.) This organization will be accomplished by a librarian who is furnished clerical help, for my supervisor will realize that it is poor economy to have professional help burdened with too many clerical chores. All materials will be listed in the card catalog so that busy teachers will find in one area materials of various types and levels relating to their units of work. The librarian, being an active member of the staff and of the curriculum committee, will have foreseen the curriculum needs, will have benefited by the suggestions of staff members, and by her close working relationship with the A-V coordinator. With advance notice to her from staff members of units to be studied, she can assemble materials quickly.

My library center will be arranged with the charge-out desk near the exit, and traffic-flow lanes will be unobstructed by

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furniture arrangement. The workroom, with a sink, will be in the vicinity of the librarian's desk.

A conference room 10' x 18' will allow for sharing, or for small groups to carry on discussions about their projects or research. There will be records and tapes for listening; filmstrips and films for viewing.

My library will have up-to-date materials, thus the embarrassment of quoting out-of-date references will be held to a minimum.

My forward-looking administrator will have provided access from the library to a film preview room. He will have seen to it that staff members are oriented in the use of machines; that provision is made for some department to check regularly the mechanical readiness of the machines; that all staff members realize that films serve their fullest purpose only when a careful preview is a part of the plan.

In my library the students come for research. My librarian does not assume that they all know how to use the library tools, leaving some to flounder helplessly. She, ever alert, senses which ones are having trouble and perhaps she teaches a lesson right then on the use of the card catalog or an encyclopedia.

In my library students come to read or browse. There is a particular joy in free selection of material and an adequate collection is provided for this very reason. When there is free selection, reading interest soars.

In my library there is joy in reading easy materials as well as the challenging. There is no stigma attached to easy books for my librarian realizes that we all read at different levels at various times depending upon our purpose, our mood, and our interest. She exercises a guidance function if she sees a student in a rut and tries unobtrusively to lead him to other interests or other levels of achievement. In the record room she notes musical preferences and at times guides a listener, realizing that appreciation can not be taught but it can be caught.

In my library there are volunteer student-helpers. It sometimes happens that by a start as a library helper—interest in books develops.

In my library the administrator is cognizant of the necessity of an adequate yearly budget and plans that the materials center will always receive its quota.

My library will be open throughout the day, the before- and after-school hours being of great importance. Evening and Saturday and Sunday hours will be planned.

I want my librarian to love books and to "sell" books. Teachers will be actively involved in the choice of materials, and will be scanning constantly new materials for purchase.

The materials center will lure children and teachers alike because it truly functions as the heart of the program around which all else revolves. With cooperative effort and that magic ingredient, "enthusiasm," it could be true.

19. SPEECH IMPROVEMENT

IT has been estimated recently that at least 5 percent of the school-age population has serious defects of speech or hearing and that an additional 5 percent has minor speech defects.

Two outstanding authorities have said, "Speech disorders is a subject as old as the Hittites but the systematic study of 'cause and cure' is almost as new as Uranium 235."*

Sequoyah Vocational School, with the assistance of Northeastern State College, Tahlequah, Oklahoma, has set up a program looking toward this cause and cure for Indian children with speech handicaps.

What Is Speech Improvement?

The general causes of speech defects are: organic, psychological, and environmental. In undertaking a speech-correction program

*Berry, Mildred F. and Eisinson, John. *Speech Disorders*. Appleton-Century-Crafts, Inc., N.Y. 1956

it is necessary (a) to determine which children have speech defects, and (b) to understand the characteristics so that proper diagnosis, treatment, and prognosis can be undertaken to improve the speech pattern. This, of course, takes specialized training.

For some years Sequoyah has been assisted by the Speech Department of the college in its work with speech-defective children. During this period one of the teachers at the school trained to become a speech therapist. Now that the teacher has met all requirements and received a certificate in speech correction, it is believed that Sequoyah boasts the first speech and hearing clinic in the Bureau.

Sequoyah also acts as a training center for student clinicians from the college assigned to work under the supervision of the therapists. In turn, certain of the hard-of-hearing cases are taken to the college for special training with some of the audio-training devices that Sequoyah does not have.

Who Needs Speech Correction?

Van Riper says, "Speech is defective when it deviates so far from the speech of other people that it calls attention to itself, interferes with communication, or causes its possessor to be maladjusted."*

Any child who has one or more of these problems needs special help with his speech. This can best be done out of the classroom situation and by a trained person. However, the curriculum for the speech-defective child is the same as for the others in his grade. The speech correction program is not a program in itself, but is a part of the whole educational process. While it is a special service to those in need of such training, it must be considered as a supplement to the classroom instruction. It should be set up in a way to meet the overall goals in education and as a part of the school curriculum which it enriches.

Going back to the essence of Van Riper's

statement, speech is defective when more attention is paid to how a thing is said than what is said. These examples are typical of the speech of many Indian children:

Dat is my ball.

My mudder is gone.

Statements such as these set children apart. Many sounds in the English language are not found in the Native Indian languages. To add to the complexity of the problem, each Indian language has its own peculiarities. Sentence construction is different. The Indian child has first of all a bilingual handicap, then if burdened with defects of speech, he has added difficulty in learning a second language.

To be able to communicate successfully is one of the important assets in life. It is possible that speech problems have been a deterrent factor in the success of many pupils who have attended Indian schools.

A child may deviate from the normal pattern when attempting to communicate. Calling attention to his problem only makes bad matters worse. He may show feelings of inadequacy, antagonism, or other emotional disturbances. Speech is often a child's feelings about himself and his surroundings. Special help for a child—where he has interesting and satisfying experiences, where he can achieve his own measure of success—is of prime importance. Speech is more than just words; it is the child's feelings too. It is useless to begin speech education until his case is carefully studied, his behavior is eased, and his environment has been adjusted.

This program helps the student whose speech is hindered by: defects of articulation, defects of voice production, defects of rhythm, delayed speech, a cleft palate, cerebral palsy, impairment of language function, or speech defects associated with defective hearing.

Two methods are used in the selection of pupils for special training: (a) the therapist screens the students and (b) a teacher or parent makes a referral. Whichever method

*Van Riper, Charles. *Speech Correction, Principle and Methods*, Revised Ed., p. 19 Prentice Hall, Inc., N.Y. 1954

is used, there must be clear understanding on the part of all concerned of just what is expected. Conferences with classroom teachers as a part of an inservice training program are helpful in acquainting classroom teachers with the overall purpose of the program and in giving the correctionist an opportunity to make suggestions regarding the selection of children for referral. These meetings also bring about a better understanding of and appreciation for what is being done. These attitudes are necessary if any program is to be successful.

When a child with speech defects has the opportunity of working in a corrective program, he discovers his personal worth and develops a feeling of security. This feeling is carried back into the classroom situation and he begins to find group approval and acceptance. Because the therapist and the teacher work together, each having the understanding of the child as a total personality, he will begin to improve. A speech-handicapped child, like a normal child, has basic needs, and desires to be wanted and appreciated. The therapist and the classroom teacher aid him by gaining his confidence, developing self-assurance in oral communication situations, and helping him find acceptance by his classmates.

This program has not been confined to the Sequoyah School. Many cases have been referred by other schools and social workers from other areas of Oklahoma. As the program expands and more people become acquainted with its services, the school hopes to serve many more children with speech problems.

20. PHYSICAL FITNESS

MUCH has been written in more recent years about the place of competitive athletics in a school program. The dangers which overemphasis on competitive athletics have on the physical well-being of youth, and the extent to which this emphasis

detracts from their educational progress have been pointed out repeatedly by individuals and organizations familiar with the attendant problems. This subject was dealt with in 1952 by a joint committee composed of representatives of several educational agencies; again in 1954 by the Education Policies Committee and the American Association of School Administrators; and last year by Dr. James B. Conant in his report on education in the junior high school.

Beginning in 1948 with an article which prohibited boxing, the Bureau of Indian Affairs has discussed in this periodical the proper and the improper role of competitive athletics in Bureau schools. The position of the Bureau is that the schools should provide programs that insure opportunities for adequate recreation and physical education for all children, rather than to concentrate their efforts on programs that involve only the small percentage of physically elite who can bring home winning pennants. We hold that competitive athletics have a place, if these activities are carried out in ways that advance the physical development of the youth who participate. More importantly, they should supplement but never replace a broad program of physical fitness from which all pupils profit.

It is suggested that all school administrators, physical education directors, recreational leaders, and athletic directors in Bureau schools acquaint themselves with the recent literature in the area of athletics, and that past issues of **Indian Education** be reviewed for Bureau thinking concerning athletics in Bureau schools. This will help each school to evaluate its program in terms of today's ideas concerning adequate physical education, and the precise role of athletic programs to the total fitness program.

We, in the Bureau, have been thinking of ways to advance quickly the overall educational level of Indian youth. This will require more study on the part of pupils, more time for library work, and more study periods after school hours. The adjustment of Bureau

programs to put vocational training at higher levels will eliminate, at junior and senior high school levels, a great deal of the physical effort involved in vocational work—carpentry, masonry, welding, farming, etc. In other words, the school program is rapidly becoming more sedentary in Bureau schools. Bus transportation, cars, and modern equipment in our schools have eliminated a great deal of the physical exercise formerly related to school activities. This makes it all the more important that we carry on a broad physical education and recreational program involving all pupils, both elementary and high school, to replace the physical effort that was inherent in the programs that are now being eliminated or deferred to higher grades.

The need for improved physical fitness and health has become a problem of national concern. Recently the President appointed an adviser to alert the country to the need for greater physical fitness of Americans, and to the consequences growing out of "softness" if they do not improve. Our comfortable and relatively sedentary life is sapping the physical vigor of the Nation. This has promoted the present concern. The President's adviser on physical fitness stated: "It is obvious that a nation of indolent, comfortable people concerned with easy living and material things is either in trouble or heading for trouble. The American people enjoy a wonderful way of life, but it may work against us. President Kennedy is eager to maintain a high degree of vigor on the grounds that physical fitness is the basis for other forms of excellence."

The President has sent a message to all schools of the country asking that attention be given to the following:

1. Identification of physically underdeveloped pupils and a determination of what is necessary to improve their physical capacities
2. Development of a program of not less than 15 minutes of vigorous exercise

daily for all pupils

3. Use of valid fitness tests to ascertain pupils' physical abilities and to evaluate their progress.

The Turtle Mountain Community School in North Dakota has been selected as one of many schools throughout the country to carry out a special factfinding study on youth fitness, and the relationship of a daily 15-minute period of well-planned physical exercise to the overall improvement of youth.

Although your school may not be included in this research project, you too can improve your physical fitness programs. We need to look seriously at our present programs to see how well we measure up to the President's goal of physical fitness for every child. Shall we begin to work toward the goal now so that there will be evidence of real progress by the end of this school year?

21. YOUTH FITNESS PROGRAM

FROM time to time prominent groups, including physicians, educators, defense specialists, and others, have charged that we are becoming a nation of "softies." They contend that we are no longer the hearty people who conquered this land and turned it into a mighty nation. Philosophers and historians remind us of the fall of other mighty empires because their citizens were interested only in the indulgence of their pleasures. While we are not ready to concede that these charges are true, we do believe that there is significant cause for concern. We have particular cause to be concerned about the fitness of our children and youth.

Within the past two years, the President's Council on Youth Fitness has initiated a special program designed to improve rapidly the fitness of our citizens, especially the children and youth. The Council began physical fitness pilot projects at six schools at the following locations: Midwest City, Oklahoma; Springfield, Missouri; Savannah,

Georgia; Harrisburg, Pennsylvania; an Army Dependent School in Germany; and the Turtle Mountain Community School at Belcourt, North Dakota. This is a report on the program at the Turtle Mountain Community School since it is a Bureau of Indian Affairs school.

The program began in September 1961 and lasted throughout the school year. It consisted of three phases:

1. Identifying physically underdeveloped students
2. Providing a minimum of 15 minutes of vigorous activity daily
3. Testing and evaluating.

The main purpose of phase one was to identify and to cite for special work the student who could not pass a minimal physical efficiency test. This test was called a screening test and consisted of three items:

1. Pull-ups (arm and shoulder strength)
2. Sit-ups (flexibility and abdominal strength)
3. Squats (thrusts).

To pass a test item each student, 4th through the 12th grade, had to be able to do a minimum number of each exercise according to his age and sex. Students were required to pass all three test items before receiving a passing score for the test. The test was administered on three different occasions.

What did the screening test reveal about the 500 students who participated? Were they indeed "softies"? The results showed that 30 percent of the children failed this relatively simple test. While these results were disappointing to school officials, they were better than the failure rate reported by other participating schools. This may be significant. The environment of Indian children, though modern conveniences are appearing on the reservations in increasing numbers, is still one that calls for a certain amount of physical exertion as the price of the daily bread. On the other hand, too many urban children, well fed and affluent,

are becoming spectators instead of participants, with the resulting insidious deterioration of their physical capabilities. In helping Indian people in transition, do we have a responsibility to make them aware of the need for special measures to keep physically fit in the new environment? We think so.

After the screening test had revealed that 30 percent of the student body was physically underdeveloped, phase two of the program began. This called for each student to engage in 15 minutes of vigorous exercises daily such as running-in-place, squat thrusts, sit-ups, push-ups, etc. designed to help the student reach the fitness goals established for his or her age group. These exercises continued throughout the school year at a regular time and place. At 12-week intervals a comprehensive test of physical achievement was given. This comprehensive test consisted of seven parts:

1. Pull-ups
2. Sit-ups
3. Standing broad jumps
4. Shuttle run
5. 50-yard dash
6. Softball throw
7. 600-yard run-walk.

Norms for this test varied with sex and age. Students eagerly approached each test period to see if they were "fit." When the comprehensive test was first given only 2 percent of the students passed. After another 12 weeks of vigorous physical activities the test was administered again with better results. When the final 12 weeks of exercises had been completed and the final comprehensive test given, 40 percent of the students passed. A daily 15-minute period of exercise had brought 40 percent of the students up to an acceptable standard of physical fitness. This had been done without losing a minute of classtime to the exercise periods. As a matter of fact, many officials feel that such programs are more likely to abet than to impede aca-

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demic programs. Small wonder, then, that Turtle Mountain school officials were pleased. They considered the program a success and thought the results justified recommending that other Bureau schools consider establishing organized fitness programs for all their students.

We live in an exciting age. Americans through our Peace Corps and other agencies, both Government and private, have almost unlimited opportunities to serve the less fortunate people of the world and thus contribute to better understanding among men. The freedom of the world may depend on our success. We must prepare to meet this challenge through a mentally alert and physically fit citizenry. Will the youngsters of your school be fully prepared to face the demands of the future?

22. INSTITUTE OF AMERICAN INDIAN ARTS TO OPEN AT SANTA FE

THE Bureau of Indian Affairs has set October 1, 1962, as the opening date of its newly created Institute of American Indian Arts. Santa Fe, New Mexico, will be the "home city" of the Institute, an Institute which promises to be unique and important in the world of the arts. Many persons, Indian and non-Indians alike, have used every means possible to point attention to the need for a school where the unusual artistic talents of America's Indians may develop; a school where the best of the traditional tribal arts may be appreciated and continued; a school where the artist or craftsman will also feel free to reach for new horizons. The efforts of the many have made October 1, 1962, a significant date. Indians are to have a center of arts and culture where dedicated students and educators may work, study, create, and contribute.

Purpose to be served. For Indian youth

of high artistic talent, the Institute will open new doors of opportunity for self-expression in painting, sculpture, music, drama, writing, and in the whole rainbow of the arts. The overall program will include academic courses, interpersonal relationships and guidance services, and wholesome campus living. The total experience should give the graduates pride and practical power for living.

Indian youth will also see art talent as an economic resource, a resource which, when developed to the point of practical value may result in excellent "make-a-living" careers. It is hoped that all of the students will enjoy the arts for the sake of art as another aesthetic dimension in their lives.

For Indians, generally speaking, the work of the Institute should have an impact near and far. When graduates take their places in American community life, they should represent a contribution capable of enriching the community. In a purely practical sense, the trained Indian artist will be a responsible citizen with an income adequate to maintain a good standard of living for himself and his family.

The Institute will have intimate and personal values for Indian students. Its graduates will enrich many communities. It may become an important instrument in our country's program of international relationships.

For our Nation, the values of the Institute are unlimited. It has been said that the way to create friendship in the family of man is to know and understand the so-called "stranger" ethnic groups. The Institute can represent a very important resource in telling the story of its native Indian groups to the world—a story told by the youth of the Nation's major tribes and in a setting which offers material evidence along with the spoken word.

PROGRAMS AT THE INSTITUTE

The high school program. The Institute

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will offer a comprehensive academic program of studies for selected art-interested students in grades 10, 11, and 12. In addition, these students may elect courses in a wide variety of the arts. The high school program is intended to meet the academic needs of art students who are (a) preparing for fine arts work in college, (b) preparing for technical schools, and (c) completing their formal education upon graduation from high school.

The post high school program. For high school graduates who wish to do two years of work above grade 12, an advanced program of specialized studies will be offered. This level of work will meet the needs of students who are ready in terms of high school background and maturity to engage in art specialization. This program will involve not only art specialization but selected pertinent academic courses as well.

Art courses to be in many fields. To the extent possible, instruction will be offered in the fields of fine arts: oil, water color, earth colors, pen and ink; crafts: ceramics, woodwork, sculpturing, weaving, metalcraft, beadwork, silk screening, leatherwork; dramatic arts: creative writing, dramatics, dancing, music. Other courses may be added as required.

Related academic courses will support art courses. They will include business training, salesmanship, Indian history and anthropology, English, mathematics, applied science, history of art, art appreciation, and typing.

Post high school students who wish to strengthen their general education as preparation for college may also elect any of the high school offerings. Provision for individualized programs according to student needs is included in the curriculum. In some instances, students at the college level may enroll in local colleges for limited off-campus studies.

Guidance. The guidance program will be under the leadership of professional coun-

selors and guidance technicians. The program will be concerned with student life on a seven-days-a-week basis: personal well-being, health, meals, recreational activities, work and study schedules, and job placements. In short, guidance will be a program in tune with the complete life of each student.

On the campus one will meet American Indian youth from all parts of the Indian country. The Eskimo of Alaska will mingle with the Seminole of Florida. Hopi, Sioux, Chippewa, Pueblo, Navajo, Apache, and many other tribes will make up the student body of the Institute.

Faculty to be resident and visiting. To meet the instructional needs of such a specialized student group, two types of faculty will staff the classrooms and studios: a resident staff and a visiting staff of specialists. In the latter category many of the specialists may be the well-known in the major fields of art.

Professional training and successful experience will be significant factors in the selection of faculty members. Selections, however, will not be made on these merits alone. The Institute will be staffed by people who also have an unusual degree of sincerity and interest in Indians and intercultural relationships.

ADMISSION TO THE INSTITUTE

The Institute seeks students with high aptitudes in one of the arts; students who have attracted the attention of their teachers, friends, counselors, or the public because of their performance in painting, music, creative writing, or any one of the various areas of art.

Applicants must have at least one quarter Indian blood and be members of a federally recognized tribe. In the main, this means any tribe that has some type of relationship with the Bureau of Indian Affairs. In the case where this relationship has been terminated by law or where recognition of a tribe is by the State or

local community only, its students are not eligible.

Applicants should be in grades 10, 11, and 12 for enrollment in the high school program. The post high school program is open to students who have graduated from high school and wish to do two years of post high school work. The age limits for admission to both programs are 16 through 21 years of age. Exceptions to these requirements will be considered when the applications are supported by adequate justifications.

Applicants must be persons of good character. They must furnish evidence of sincere interest and serious intention in the field of art.

WHERE TO, MR. GRADUATE?

Two types of careers are possible: pure art careers and art-related careers. In the pure art field, the graduate may work as a full-time artist or craftsman. He may be independent and self-employed or he may be a member of a guild and work with a cooperative group or he may be employed as a staff artist in any one of the many operations of the professions, industry, or business.

In the art-related fields, the title "artist" may not actually be emphasized in his job title, but the nature of the work will be based on his art background of education. The graduate may do art-related work in museums, schools, churches; newspaper and book publishing work; research projects involving science, medicine, etc.; advertising and other types of commercial art; or work in the entertainment profession such as television, movies, and the theater. The field is large and varied. So, regardless of whether the graduate works in pure Indian traditional art or in art generally as an artist or art businessman or whether he follows an art-related career, he can make a good living and at the same time contribute significantly to art and to mankind. His contribution should be unique in that it stems out of an Indian background.

23. EDUCATIONAL DEMANDS FOR THE YEARS AHEAD

WE BELIEVE IT IS APPROPRIATE to call again to our attention some of the glaring facts we must face in education, and to point out some of their pertinent implications.

By this time, no doubt, several of you have seen the slides prepared by the Department of Labor which vividly project population and employment trends.* School administrators should take the lead in using this material for staff planning. Sets of these slides are available through the Field Technical Unit, and if desired, may be borrowed from that source. The booklets will be provided from the same source, free.

Data from the 1950 census showed that 11 percent of the population of the United States, 25 years and older, was functionally illiterate, which means that slightly more than one person in ten could not read at a fifth-grade level or above. When one measures this reading level against the level of reading required in today's complex affairs, the implications of this problem become apparent. In 1950, one person in ten could not read the newspapers or periodicals of the country with any depth of comprehension. These functionally illiterate people could not complete the average employment forms to get a job; could not complete an income tax form; could not understand a contract for purchase of goods and services (yet installment buying of cars, housing, and merchandise is common practice); and could not understand insurance policies, property deeds, etc. This is only to mention a few of the written materials they are confronted with in everyday living.

Much of this reading in connection with everyday business affairs other people must

***Manpower Challenge of the 1960s.** Slides may be obtained from Creative Arts Studio, 814 H Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. \$15 set

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do for them, which places the illiterate wholly at the mercy of others—the honest, as well as the individual of sharp practices.

A well known authority has also stated that the 1950 rate of illiteracy, when projected into future unemployment would, if left unremedied, produce an unemployment figure of approximately 15,000,000 in 1970. This translated into percentages based on the projected 1970 population would be 7 percent or more.

Then, when one studies the projected employment opportunities for 1970 other serious facts present themselves. Laboring jobs are fast disappearing as automation and electronics replace the work of the human hand. Farm work is decreasing. Service and management occupations and professional occupations will increase rapidly. In other words, there is already an oversupply of workers of the laboring type in unskilled work where educational qualifications are not high; and a shortage in the positions requiring higher educational qualifications.

These facts have serious implications for educators, and one can scarcely pick up a paper or periodical without seeing some reference to displacement of unskilled workers and the need for better educated citizens. Already these facts have spurred the action of Congress on legislation to stimulate the upgrading of the educational level of the country, the National Defense Education Act being an example.

How do these facts relate to the education of Indians, and what action should it spark on our part? Indians in 1950, by comparison with the national population, suffered a much greater educational disadvantage. By comparison with the national population, illiteracy among Indian adults, 25 years and older, was four to five times greater. Using the same type of projection, in 1970, if nothing is done to erase this great incidence of illiteracy, the unemployment percentage among Indians will be 40-50 percent. What a crisis that would be for Indians in 1970!

Of course, much has been done between 1950 and 1960 to upgrade Indian education. More Indian children are in school; more adults are going to school. But in the school year 1958-59, 60 percent of the Indian high school enrollees dropped out of high school. Where will they be in 1970 in the employment picture?

Rather than wait until the crisis is upon us, we must prevent it through programs of quality now. Ten years ago, our goal had to be a school seat for every child; now our goal must be high school or better for every Indian child. This will require hard work on the part of employees and Indian youth—but all of us must realize that high school no longer is enough. To prevent a new type crisis in Indian education in 1970, our goals for the next five years will point to ways and means of effecting excellence in school operations.

6

DESIGNS FOR QUALITY TEACHING

1. DESIGN FOR QUALITY TEACHING*

QUALITY TEACHING HAS WINGS. It knows no bounds. It has goals but no limits.

It is by drawing out rather than by pouring in.

It is by living example.

It is by voice and smile.

It is wrapped in kindness and love.

It is tempered with firmness and direction.

It is wider than a text.

It is broader than a classroom.

It covers time and space through a variety of experience.

It provides for all avenues of learning: sight, sound, touch, smell, taste.

It makes room for investigation, experimentation, judgment, evaluation.

It leads children to search and research.

Witness the six-year-old boy pleading to see my train book because "the book at my school don't got how to stop trains"; the fifth grader who is searching for material that will help him to identify animal tracks in the snow; or the college freshman who is doing research for a paper on European cathedrals.

For each child, quality teaching recognizes the time for a higher step, a wider view, a longer look. This assures his involvement at a level which guarantees a fair measure of success for him.

Key words in quality teaching are interest, imagination, initiative, motivation, involvement, flexibility, responsibility.

Quality teaching shows a sensitivity to each child's needs and attempts to provide

the challenge, the environment, the emotional climate, the security, and the materials that will enrich the child's total educational experience.

*Reprinted from *Highlights in Education*, Juneau Area Office, February 1961

2. PURPLE GRAPES

SEVERAL YEARS AGO, at one agency, when new teachers entered on duty, they were given in their orientation sessions certain instructions about teaching English to non-English-speaking beginners, and instruction about how to develop the artistic talents of Indian children. A great deal of time was spent discussing with teachers the importance of developing beginning oral vocabulary around everyday experiences of the children. In these discussions, it was pointed out that when teachers develop English around the things that a child sees, hears, smells, touches, and tastes (things he experiences), the vocabulary is meaningful and useful to him.

In talking about art instruction, the teachers were instructed to provide the children with interesting experiences on their level, then to put art materials at their disposal—tempera, crayons, finger paints, paper, string, wire, etc.—and let them use their own imagination and ingenuity in expressing their ideas through these media. The teachers were practically commanded, "Thou shall not put color books or patterns in a child's hands because, when you do, you establish adult standards in his mind which he cannot achieve on his own; therefore, you discourage his own creative efforts, deny

him the joy of creating, and the opportunity to develop his own talents."

In October, on the first visit, the supervisor saw a small first-grader with a purple crayon struggling to color a bunch of grapes in a color book (muscle coordination is also involved here). She asked, pointing to the picture, "What is this?" The child said nothing. The teacher rushed over to rescue the child, or maybe it was the supervisor, and asked as she pointed, "What is this?" The child said nothing. She prompted, "Don't you remember? Grapes, grapes." Then she remarked to the supervisor, "John never can remember the word grapes." When she was asked, "Has this child ever seen a bunch of purple grapes?" she said, "No, I'm sure he hasn't." When she was asked, "Don't you remember the discussion about giving children art materials and letting them express their own ideas?" she replied that she did remember this discussion but had not realized it meant seat work.

This happened before the studies were made on how well people listen. We now know, according to some of the research, that most people forget 50 percent of what they hear immediately after hearing it. So that may explain the teacher's lack of application.

Anyway, this account, which is true, shows that the child and the teacher were having the same learning difficulties: recall was impossible for both because neither had sufficient background to support the new learnings and to give them meaning. The child could not recall grapes because grapes had no meaning for him; the teacher made no association with what she was doing in art and what had been told her about teaching art. In fact, in having the child color a bunch of grapes, the teacher had violated two teaching principles: one, meaningful vocabulary is developed in relationship to a child's experiences, otherwise vocabulary becomes empty words that cannot be remembered or used; and, second, give the child art materials and let him experiment

with them to express his own ideas. This way, he will grow intellectually and artistically.

A teacher who gives a child patterns and color books is not teaching art. The child has not created anything; he has not had any opportunity to express himself. True, he will get a sense of doing something, but after a while he will tire of this and then he is through with art. Color books are no more useful in developing a child's creative art interests, than reciting "Peter Piper picked a peck of pickled peppers" over and over will develop a vocabulary. There is a certain sense of achievement when one gets his tongue around all the words perfectly, but no one continues to use the Peter Piper phrase to carry on a conversation. Neither is repetition of it intellectually stimulating to anyone.

The question is sometimes asked, "Are Indian children more artistically inclined than non-Indian children?" It would be unsafe to reply on the basis of opinion. Certainly, Indian children, if left on their own, are more uninhibited in expressing their ideas through creative art activities. Then the question is, "Why are non-Indian children usually more inhibited?" Indian children in greater numbers experiment, if permitted to do so, with art media, than is true with the majority of other children in the average classroom. Indian children, generally speaking, show greater growth and maturity in their art, than the average non-Indian child of similar age. Visitors to our office are always amazed at the art work of Indian children that may be on display, when they are told the age and grade of the child who created the picture or object.

Could it be possible that in our culture we discourage children's creative efforts by bringing them up on a steady diet of color books from infancy through childhood? I firmly believe so. That is why it is discouraging to see more and more color books, cutouts, tracing patterns, etc. being placed in the hands of Indian children.

Now that we are getting more materials in dormitories for play and instruction, one also sees color books taking a rather prominent place in some, instead of the variety of art media that should be there.

The teacher described earlier had ears and heard not, and a little child sat and colored a bunch of purple grapes that had no meaning whatever for him. If those who read this become doers of the word, no child will be found meekly coloring purple grapes or purple cows or red tulips. He will create his own cows and tulips and grapes.

3. INDEPENDENT LEARNING

HERE HAS BEEN MUCH DISCUSSION of the increase of knowledge, and it is predicted that the volume of knowledge will double again between 1960 and 1970. What will this mean to the child who starts to school in 1970? He will be faced with an accumulation of knowledge twice the volume that the child who entered school in 1960 faced; and what the situation will be by the time he graduates no one can predict with any degree of accuracy. Both those who enter and those who complete their schooling in the next decade will be faced with a tremendous task of merely keeping up with a mounting volume of knowledge.

It is also estimated that three-fourths of the working force in 1975 will be making products which have not yet been invented. It is not difficult to comprehend this statement when we learn that 90 percent of the drugs used today were unknown ten years ago. Similar advancements have been made in other areas in the last few years.

We are also told that by the year 2000—only 38 years away—the average person will have to be retrained three times before he retires. Already technological changes have made many jobs obsolete. Many of the jobs of the coal miner, the farmer, the production line worker in the automobile industry have been, in the past decade, taken over

by machinery. Retraining programs have been started in some places to give these workers an opportunity to learn new skills that will prepare them for employment in different fields of work.

In the past most individuals who completed their formal education expected their preparation to equip them for a lifetime of employment. As we see, this is no longer true; it is predicted that in the future the changes from one type of work to another will be even more rapid than they are today. No longer can one consider his formal education completed at any time. Education has become an essential and a lifelong process, and each individual must be psychologically and intellectually prepared to accept the need for continued study and retraining.

Unless today's schools can prepare youth while they are in school with the skills that they must have to study independently when they become adults, they will be unable to cope with the changes in the employment world and they will be unable to cope with the mounting volume of knowledge required in the 21st century.

Teachers more than ever before must teach beyond subject matter. They must first help students acquire a thirst for knowledge, and then they must teach them how to develop skills for independent study so that they can continue their education on their own when no teachers are around to make assignments.

The student who is prepared to learn on his own is a resourceful person. He knows how and where to search for information; he is familiar with the library, what it contains, and how to use it. He knows how to search newspaper files and he knows how to use resource people in the community. But to acquire these skills he must be taught to search for information on his own while he is in school. He must have facilities that will be laboratories where he can learn under the guidance of teachers to become an independent learner.

Not only must students learn to study on

their own but they must also learn to react to and think about the facts they gather. They must learn to define problems, set hypotheses, make plans for gathering evidence, assemble pertinent facts, study the interrelationships of facts that are gathered, evaluate findings, and draw conclusions. This type of study is more than taking in facts. It is taking in facts and at the same time reacting to them in relationship to the problem at hand before drawing conclusions. This level of study is not ordinarily taught to the degree it should be taught in the elementary and high schools.

Evidence gathered from Indian students indicates that they consider learning how to study as one of their major problems. Therefore, it appears that each teacher and school administrator in Bureau schools should give urgent attention to teaching students how to learn on their own. For the first time in Bureau history new school construction will provide an instructional materials center which can help students, under teacher guidance, develop into independent learners.

4. CHILDREN NEED EXPERIENCES

If we accept Dr. Kilpatrick's statement that children will learn exactly and precisely what they live, we must reiterate the truism that children need many and varied experiences. These include people, places, and things and are carried on individually and with groups. The worthwhileness of such experiences will be in direct relation to the understanding, imagination, and guidance of the adult or adults who help to plan and execute them or merely to interpret experiences children may relate to them.

Many schools are consciously providing for valuable experiences when school curricula are developed, when buildings are erected and equipped, when school transportation is provided, and when parents are in-

vited to share in carrying out the purposes of the school. There is scarcely any disagreement over the fact that children need to see and to have firsthand experiences with people, places, and things of interest to them at the various age levels as they grow and develop.

Children begin early to experience. They reach out to take hold of anything within reach; they want to feel it, to taste it, to see what it will do. They use all of their senses to explore it. This is the way they begin to understand their world and to make use of it for their own purposes. If the desire and the impulse to examine the things about them are not inhibited, children enter school alive and alert to explore their new surroundings there.

Provide Experiences at All Levels

For some reason, the teacher of beginners is allowed considerably more freedom in providing rich experiences in and out of the classroom than teachers in succeeding grade levels. Somehow there seems to be the feeling that when children "get into books," it is time to quit "tripping around" and get down to business. Nothing could be further from the truth. At every grade level children have distinct interests which need to be recognized and developed with rich experiences. It is our business to try to make these useful to children in a way that will contribute most to their growth, development, knowledge, and happiness.

Sometimes this becomes an unwieldy task when a teacher faces a roomful of children wondering how she is to manage a trip. Two factors enter in here. First, we must realize that many experiences can be had without taking trips, and second, all children do not need the same experiences. In our own backyard are many things to explore and to test, to compare and to evaluate. Rain pours down on a dirty window pane causing erosion, the roots of a plant hold the soil during a rain, a bird builds a nest close by, an airplane flies over the school building, expansion joints change with the weather-

er and myriads of other things lie within reach unexplored. Toys offer opportunities for experimentation, and care of pets provides endless experiences that help with an understanding of life and its demands.

Certain other experiences do depend upon field trips. If all children cannot go on a trip or would not profit by it, some of the group can go to the dairy, some can visit the bakery, others an ice cream plant, and all report their findings to the class. The problem of what to do with the children who stay at school is a baffling one. Teachers have solved the problem by turning to the principal who often welcomes the opportunity to become better acquainted with the children. Parents may offer their services as do advisers, and other staff members when they are free to do so. They may, upon occasion, accompany the children while the teacher remains at school. Children feel a greater responsibility for reporting what was experienced when all do not make the trip. Anyhow, experiences for children should not be on a mass production basis.

Much can be accomplished by providing time, opportunity, and material for dramatic play. Children relive their experiences in this form of activity and the teacher who is observant learns much about how they interpret the complicated world of which they are a part. Children need to enter into group plays to learn motor skills so that they will become participants and not onlookers the rest of their lives.

Nature experiences, shared with other children and adults, can result not only in increasing children's knowledge of the universe but also in leading them to discover that there is order and law in the universe and that phenomena of nature provide a source of wonder and respect as well as awe and inspiration.

Experiences with money should come early and be real so that children will become acquainted with the value of money, how it is earned, and something of the wisdom in spending it.

Cultivate Child's Respect for His Own Abilities and Those of Others

It is essential that children have the experience of being treated like worthwhile individuals whose personalities are respected, who are given recognition and approval for their accomplishments. They profit from having the experience of doing things for themselves. This can be accomplished more satisfactorily when school equipment is suitable. For instance, if books are on tables or low shelves, children can make their own selection. They can hang up their own wraps if hooks are within reach.

Learning to accept authority from those who are more mature and experienced, to know their own limitations because of size, age, sex, or even lack of ability are essential experiences for children. With the proper guidance from adults, children can be kept from feeling unduly inadequate in limiting situations.

Becoming acquainted with many kinds of people, those who differ from them in race, religion, nationality, economic and social status, physical and intellectual capacity, is the only effective way children can develop tolerance and an understanding of basic differences in people.

Group living offers the best means of helping children to gain confidence and self-direction by working out solutions to their own problems. It is assumed that this will be carried out with the guidance, not domination, of adults. Learning to plan and to work cooperatively in groups provides a pattern for operation that is needed throughout life in a democratic society. Children need the freedom to fail without censure of harmful consequences. Clubs are becoming increasingly popular in schools because they give children the feeling of "belongingness," and aid them in developing hobbies and lifelong avocations, and satisfy immediate interests as well.

School Should Gear Program to Responsibility

Since character cannot be "taught," it is

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important that activities providing experiences in developing character traits be emphasized. If children are to learn to be honest, they must be given opportunity for practicing honesty; if they are to grow up with any of the other commendable qualities such as courtesy, kindness, resourcefulness, self-reliance, sobriety, cooperation, dependability, promptness and the like, it can be accomplished only by experiences which call for making use of these traits over and over again. Didactic methods will never do the job. Observation and experience show that more of our young people lose jobs because of lack of character traits such as promptness, dependability, and wise use of leisure time than because of inability to do the job. No amount of formal education is worth much if we turn out moral derelicts from our schools. To avoid doing so, we must be eternally vigilant in seeing that children are given ample opportunities to develop these characteristics.

Whatever experiences help children in solving their individual and group problems, in making the best use of their environment, in becoming useful citizens, in enjoying an abundant life, in reaching out to give assistance and understanding to people beyond their limited boundary, those are the experiences we want to provide in our schools. "Children will learn exactly and precisely what they live."

5. THE LANGUAGE ARTS

COMMUNICATION is a two-way process. It involves the expressing of ideas by one person, either through speaking or writing, and the understanding of them by another, either by listening or reading. So the purpose of language is to improve communications; to make easier the expressing and understanding of thoughts, ideas, and feelings. To express ideas, one must be able to speak and to write. To understand, one must be able to read and to comprehend.

The interrelated abilities necessary to proficiency in the art of communication, then, include reading, writing, spelling, and the ability to express one's thoughts, both orally and in writing. So, instead of having an English period as in the earlier days of school, we now have a large block of time devoted to language arts.

There are certain logical processes to be observed in developing the child's language arts. Before he talks, he must have some thought he wishes to communicate to others. Before he reads successfully, he must use words meaningfully in speaking. He will spell better if he has a purpose for learning to spell.

When a child enters school for the first time, he should enter a classroom where he will see many things about which he wishes to talk. He should be encouraged to engage in meaningful activities which will stimulate his thought processes and lead to purposeful language usage.

Many units lead to opportunities for relating reading and language activities. Some that may be used in primary grades are listed below.

1. Our School
 - a. Things we have at school
 - b. Things we do at school
 - c. Things we learn at school.
2. My Home
 - a. The family
 - b. Work we do at home
 - c. Fun we have at home.

Some opportunities for language usage which may be incorporated in the units are conversation and discussion, planning, dramatics, performance of social amenities, choral speech, listening to and retelling stories, assembly talks, simple letters, experience stories, news stories, reading and making stories from movies, making slides, learning names of things relating to units, labeling charts and posters, making signs, and giving directions and explanation of games.

The teacher must provide enriched sur-

roundings and exciting stimuli for both reading and oral discussion. The classroom may contain many things which will inspire language-usage situations: pictures, pets, plants, flowers in season, toys. A reading corner where interesting books are displayed, a science corner where rocks, shells, pressed flowers, etc. are placed will inspire contributions from the children and give rise to opportunities to teach certain language skills, certain words and sentences.

The daily activities furnish stimulating conversational material. Drawing, building, singing, playing games, taking trips, cutting, pasting, and coloring may be employed as meaningful and varied language experiences.

Some guiding principles to observe are as follows:

1. The primary function of language is thought communications.
2. No worthwhile language experience takes place without thought.
3. Giving the child rich varied experiences is of first importance.
4. Language must be considered a part of every school activity and not limited to artificial situations during language period.
5. Language development is best accomplished through a purely functional approach in which expression follows or accompanies experience in purposeful activity.

Reading is tied closely with the pupil's own experience. It begins with experience charts. Meaning is developed much more readily when the material read has some connection with things the child has seen and experienced.

In the beginning year, or early first grade, reading readiness must be developed before the actual teaching of reading begins. To force reading instructions on a child only results in retarding his development rather than accelerating it. The child learns little and loses much of his self-confidence. In many cases, this leads to dislike for reading

and develops a sense of failure which may persist throughout the child's school life.

Reading should have a casual, informal beginning. Children are introduced to it gradually. They tell stories of their experiences. The teacher writes them at their dictation and the children and the teacher read them together. Signs are made and read, daily plans are written on the board, daily news stories are composed, charts are made.

Reading is a thought-getting process. A thought unit is read rather than the word or syllable. It may be a short sentence or phrase but the thought unit is preserved.

No one method of teaching reading will ever be successful for all children all the time. The modern tendency is to watch the child. When the method in use fails to get results the teacher switches to another approach.

6. TRENDS IN EDUCATION

WE LIVE IN A READING WORLD. It is difficult to find an activity that does not require a person to read and, in many cases, proficient reading is the main avenue of communication. In our own profession, the field of education, proficiency in reading is essential. We must be able to read with understanding the philosophy of education, the educational research reports, and the current professional literature. Without the ability to do this we would have little chance to be successful.

Other people must read, too. The farmer reads agricultural journals to gain knowledge of improved methods of farming; the mechanic reads instructional manuals to assemble and repair complex machinery; the engineer reads construction regulations; and mothers read childcare pamphlets. To the degree that these people read with comprehension, they are capable of keeping abreast of the changes and the demands of modern living.

To us who depend on reading to fulfill the

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demands made on us, it is hard to imagine success along any line without the ability to read proficiently. But beyond the need to read to do our work successfully, most people would agree that reading is necessary to live a full and satisfying life. This must be true for more books, magazines, and newspapers are sold today than ever before, even with our millions of television and radio sets.

Not only must a person be able to read to function successfully on the job and to satisfy his intellectual and emotional needs, he ought to be a competent reader in his community and his nation. He needs to be knowledgeable on issues that confront people in a democracy. He must assimilate facts from the printed page, evaluate those facts, and arrive at sound conclusions. Effective reading is the best tool for this purpose. The person who can do this is capable of serving well his community and his country.

Can the Indian students who leave our schools today read at the level of understanding that will permit them to be successful in meeting the heavy reading demands made on them? They will meet the same demands in this rapidly changing world as will all other people.

The current educational literature indicates that the public schools recognize the fact that they must upgrade the reading skills of their school population. Individual schools and whole school systems are making a vigorous effort to improve the reading program from the first grade through the twelfth. If this special attention is necessary for the general population, is it not more necessary for us to concentrate on a program which will develop effective communication skills of Indian people—people who must learn to think in and to speak the English language as well as to read it? Success in school learning depends upon the ability to read with comprehension; and reading, like any skill, will show improvement with practice.

The presence of reading disability cases in Bureau schools presents a serious prob-

lem. There are many factors which may contribute to reading disability and in one child there may be an overlapping of reasons why he may not be a proficient reader. Nevertheless, if reading difficulties have been diagnosed, one rarely has a case where a skilled teacher cannot bring about significant improvement.

Research reports indicate that remedial reading instruction raises the achievement level of children with reading difficulties. Even relatively short periods of instruction have produced marked improvement in most cases. One school reported gratifying progress in children who attended a class in remedial reading during the summer months when the regular classes were not in session.

Many public schools have remedial classes to "shore up" their reading programs until they can be replaced by strong developmental programs. A developmental reading program is one in which the skills taught at one grade level underpin or form the foundation on which to build the skills at the next higher level. Failure to teach the reading skills needed at the level at which the individual reads hampers his achieving at any higher level.

The teaching of reading begins with the basic skills in the first grade and continues through high school where the special skills are perfected by the teachers of subject matter fields. Development of the special skills begins when there is a need which is usually about the fourth grade. In the higher grades the special skills taught in the elementary grades are perfected, and others are developed to meet the needs of diversified reading demands.

Is your school keeping abreast of the times with a systematic developmental reading program? Are you improving your program based on the research now available to you? More and more people are realizing that a reading disability prevent does not have to be corrected; that reading problems can be forestalled by a strong reading program which begins in the first grade and

continues through the twelfth.

7. BASE READING ON INTERESTS

A GALLUP POLL showed that 55% of the reading adults in England were reading a book, while in the United States the corresponding figure was 17%. The question followed: "Why in the U. S., with a high literacy rate, is there an extraordinarily low reading record?" The public library survey, also, astonished people with its report of the low reading record of the American reading public.

Obviously, though we are teaching the skills of reading, we fail somewhere in developing a lifetime interest in reading. There must be a search for reasons. Could it be that we pay too little attention to individual interests?

Sometimes we hear among educators: "If 30 children in a room are doing the same thing at the same time, you may be sure they are not all involved." Reduce it still more—if a group of 10 students are reading the same piece of required prose at the same time, all are not equally involved. People just aren't made that way. This has a bearing on our reading program, for, are we not working to encourage reading interests that will last a lifetime, not just a moment, or to pass a test, or to just "get by"? Our aim is to provide opportunities to develop permanent and on-going interests that are likely to carry on through adult life.

Reading skills are of necessity taught with the use of carefully prepared story material, some of it contrived. Make the best use of such material, for years of expert research have gone into its planning and without skills a reader is lost. In contrast, free reading allows individual interests to have full play. Some teachers think reading progress is greater under such a system, and it seems reasonable. Don't we work harder and more intently at the things we choose for

ourselves? Freedom of selection has its base in sound psychology.

Reading research classifies children's interests: 6-year-olds like one thing; 10-year-olds like another. Girls like this; boys like that. Still, there are differences as to what each 6-year-old likes about a specific story. Each case needs the individual approach.

If a child's main interest is in comic books, use the best comic books to the best advantage and let them be a bridge to better reading. Help him to be selective and then branch out into related fields.

"Bridge" is a favorite word in library parlance. Bearing in mind that it is wiser to lead people than to drive them, use those selections that interest a child, as a bridge to other reading. He likes comics with a western flavor. Read him enough of a good western story to get him sufficiently interested to finish it himself. (Success therapy is not to be overlooked. If the story is well chosen and easy, his reaction may be, "That was easy, I guess I'll read some more.") Give him some more easy westerns. While interest is still high, introduce some western biography or historical fiction into his reading diet. Careful selection is important. The time must be right. Understanding of the child is vital, for some climb quickly while others need more gentle persuasion. Perhaps a child loves his dog. Find dog picture books. Talk about dogs in TV programs. Let him find many dog stories in his books or find many dog books in the library. Find some easy dog stories of real interest. Lead to other pet stories. Read him some wild animal stories. If these "take," bring on some teasers in animal fiction or non-fiction, zoo stories, or biographies of animal hunters.

Guidance personnel or teachers exercising a guidance function can sometimes capitalize on a child's interest and lead him into a field of reading which may help to solve some of his problems.

In *Reading Interest of Children*, G. W. Norvell says, "Only a fraction of the literary selections now widely used as required

reading in grades 7-12 are suitable from the point of view of children's interests. The interest of girls are better served than those of boys." No 10 Scouts choose exactly the same hobby. No 10 girls have exactly the same background. You get out of reading what you put into it. Think of the variety of backgrounds influencing what comes out of any reading! Perhaps it is difficult to develop a real or lasting interest in literature by giving all members of a class identical assignments day in and day out. But, if it is required reading, let's have a diversity of approaches lest we lose some readers by the wayside. Let's read aloud more (and do practice to be a pleasing reader) to bring out the choice nuances of feeling, the beauty of words, the singing rhythm, the picture created in the imagination in these required selections. Try a record or tape for a change. Make TV or movie assignments. It must be fun to say, "Mom, my homework is to watch TV." Follow up with a caption sometimes used, "You saw it, now read it." There are guessing games to play. Quizzes are popular. Match characters in books with titles. Match authors and titles. Play "20 questions" or "What's my line?" with book characters. Promote a reading club and library visits. Use your ingenuity to add a spark of interest to catch the reluctant reader. In time, his temporary interest may become a permanent one.

A high school teacher, Hal Conkey, writing for the **National Parent Teacher**, tells of his experience in getting a class to enjoy poetry. Every week each student was asked to bring a poem to read to the class. The only requirement was that it must be one that YOU like. This individual approach brought most gratifying results. Students were hearing, reading, selecting, and **enjoying** poetry.

Don't ever forget your own early interest in adult books. It is a part of growing up. The New York Public Library reports that in its 1957 leisure reading list for the teenager, 80% are adult books.

A short time interest may be sufficient to pass an examination. We fail often to make long time interest a standard for our teaching. Children's reading interests, when they come to us, are our opportunity. Their interests, when they leave us, are our responsibility.

8. READING FOR PLEASURE

READING FOR PLEASURE. Why do some pupils become eager readers while others read only what is required? As I considered this question, I began to wonder just when and how a child does learn to read for pleasure.

May he not be going through a phase or stage of that learning when he sits and listens to his mother, or as more likely to be the case with the majority of pupils in Bureau schools, to his first teacher read the nursery rhymes and first simple stories?

While the child listens to the story being read, and then discusses the accompanying pictures, it is quite probable that he is beginning to associate meaning with printed language.

And through these experiences, the child, undoubtedly, is developing an attitude that enjoyment may be had from reading. Certainly the development of desirable attitudes toward reading is one of the aims of every teacher.

There are many books which should be read to children before they can read for themselves. Otherwise, some of the charm of certain books may be lost. Someone has said that every child needs to be introduced to **Wind in the Willows** before he becomes too old to see anything incongruous about a toad driving a motor.

Reading for pleasure should be part of the instructional phase of the program in children's literature, and of the program in oral reading. The former is concerned primarily with helping pupils build a continuing interest in reading a variety of excellent

reading matter. And who does not like to share with others a passage he enjoyed reading for himself?

William S. Gray in **Summary of Investigations Relating to Reading** shows that this purpose has not been achieved; that the reading interests of those people investigated were not what they could be and that their reading tastes were distinctly limited in scope. A number of surveys of the voluntary reading of people who have completed the sixth grade reveals this same thing.

Adequate instruction in reading will help pupils acquire the reading ability they need for any and all of the different reading purposes. If the child has that power, it seldom requires much encouragement to interest him in reading for pleasure, provided the right reading material is accessible.

From **Fundamentals for Children of Our Time*** comes this statement: "No reading program would be complete if it were limited to what might be called informational type or expository material. Our students must become acquainted with all types of literature and learn the special techniques that are necessary for reading each."

The material placed in the library to interest children in free reading should be those selections of high quality which have the strongest appeal for the pupils, and which they can read with relative ease. The selections should cover a wide range of interest appeal and reading difficulty.

The books or selections to be used and the teaching of these selections must center upon helping the pupils to live the incidents, see the sights, hear the sounds, and feel the feelings presented in the selections if children are really to develop the desire to read for fun.

In general, reading is done in two types of situations: for securing information and for recreation. The teacher must realize that she cannot depend upon the development of

skills, abilities, attitudes, and information acquired from the use of recreational type materials to meet the needs of the learner for dealing with informational type materials.

On the other hand, for the effective teaching of reading for pleasure, the teacher must have the attitude that study and analysis of the material should be permitted only if they add to the reader's appreciation and enjoyment.

The attitude of both the teacher and pupil should be an attitude of enjoyment, and the method and instructional materials used must be those which are most likely to develop the desired interests and tastes.

Time to read for the fun of reading is an essential part of the child's training for reading both for the present and for the future. Since much of young pupils' reading is for the purpose of securing enjoyment, teachers should give attention to those activities in which the child reads for this purpose.

The recreational or free reading may be divided into two general activities: those in which the child reads silently for the purpose of securing pleasure and those in which the child reads orally. Usually the oral reading is to give others fun by reading interesting selections aloud to them.

Standards for good oral reading should be developed by pupils, then as the child reads he will be conscious that he must make the material understandable and interesting. This requires thorough preparation by the reader in advance of the oral reading if he expects to hold the attention of his listeners.

And the possibility of having an audience provides quite an incentive to some children for preparation of reading orally. I am thinking of a little boy who, after having listened to other readers in the group entertain with their reading during the free reading period, became very desirous of sitting in "teacher's chair" to read a story to the class. He went to the classroom library several days in succession and spent time

*Hass, Raoul R., and Anderson, Kenneth E. **Fundamentals for Children of Our Times**. University of Kansas Publications, Lawrence, Kansas. 1954

thumbing through practically every book in the library. Finally he selected the book, **Nothing But Cats, Cats, Cats, and What Do They Say?**

Since he was not a very able reader, he selected this particular book because it is made up mostly of pictures, the small amount of reading is easy, and the book does not appear too small in size.

He spent time on the book for several days, and when he had it prepared to his satisfaction, he asked if he might read the book to the class. You should have seen the pleased expression on his face after he had read the story and found it well received by the group. The delight to be found in sharing books with other children! There is no other sharing that gives quite the same pride.

If we remember that poetry is a source of fun and joy, a way to the appreciation of the beautiful, and that it is most appreciated when read aloud, whether in the first grade or the sixth, we shall experience no difficulty in presenting poetry.

The enjoyment of some poems is increased when they are sung. After considering the poem as a piece of literature, learn to sing it. The teaching of the song is entirely a matter of recreation and should be handled with corresponding technic. The poem "Over in the Meadow" was thus enjoyed by my second grade last year.

Occasionally motor responses or simple dramatizing of the action during the singing or reading of the poem is enjoyed. Nursery rhymes and ballads may well be adapted to this use.

Opportunity to read orally in a group in preparation for the dramatization of a story is fun, and incidentally the extra reading may give the children the extra drill they need on vocabulary.

Children should be given opportunity to tell other children about new stories, books, and poems they have read. When handled properly this procedure stimulates interest on the part of both the audience and the

speaker.

Often the reading of a story may be followed by the right sort of informal discussion, but under no circumstances should the discussion or questioning be permitted to take on the form of a quiz.

As to checking on the leisure-time reading, perhaps that should be left to the individual teacher's discretion as to how much checking should be done, and the method to be used for checking. Of course, the real test of recreational reading in school is whether the children read at home.

The goal of school reading is to produce a lifetime habit. We should do all things possible to develop it, and one of the best means of doing this is to make reading pleasurable to the child from his first day in school.

I still enjoy recalling the thought I got from a poster which I saw in a bookstore several years ago, and I strive to impart the substance of this thought to my pupils:

"Books are keys to wisdom's treasure,
Books are gates to lands of pleasure,
Books are paths that upward lead,
Books are friends.
Come let us read."

9. WHAT A LIBRARY DOES FOR A CHILD

THE WORLD IS WIDE. Yesterday is now. You traveled to far worlds before sputnick. You dare the deep before skin divers.

Bravery was in your soul for you killed lions and tigers at the age of four—all this because of the world of books!

Some few children are fortunate that in all their days they are surrounded by books and magazines but, for most, the library is the magic door that unlocks this wide, wide world.

There is the magic of illustrators who make color and line come alive to tell stories to the very young.

There is the magic of illustrators who

tease us into chuckling over incongruities.

There is magic in pictures that pose problems—how, why, where? They make us think.

There is the magic world of animal friends—there are fathers, mothers, and babies.

There are machines that go—there are gadgets that move.

There are pages to turn for surprises—all to be found in the books on the library shelves.

Then comes the exciting time when words begin to tell the story. Someone reads and you are a good listener. You begin to help read. Your lips and ears are charmed with the feel and the sound of the words. There is rhythm to please your senses. There is repetition to delight you:

Rocking, rocking, rocking

Bang, bang, bang

WOOO OOO OOO goes the wind!

There is joy in this sharing with others these wonders within the pages of a book.

Next comes a state when independence takes hold. You are old enough to have a library card and get books from the library all by yourself. Think of "Rosa-Too-Little," by Sue Felt or the film, "Impressionable Years." Do you remember the first book that you borrowed from the library? Maybe you couldn't read a word of it; maybe the illustrations were dull, but it represented a real step in your independence. You checked out a library book **all by yourself**.

Your reading ability improved. Your world widened as you were surrounded by books on the shelves. You chose, you browsed. You put aside some to enjoy at a later date when readiness was there. You thumbed through pages loving the color, the type, the feel, and the smell of the books and magazines.

Then came the day when you wished to know what kind of ears to paint on the tiger that you were making. Your teacher sent you to the library to find out. The librarian and you found the encyclopedia and the

tiger's ears; but more than that, you discovered books that have many answers: encyclopedias, dictionaries, atlases, and almanacs.

Independence roused again when the teacher and the librarian together unfolded for you the magic of the numbers on the shelves and of those same numbers in the card catalog. All by yourself you searched for information or for leisure reading.

Critical judgment and taste developed as browsing and testing continued. You decided that you liked "Treasure Island" illustrated by N. C. Wyeth better than the one illustrated by N. Price. You liked "Buffalo Bill" by d'Aulaire better than the comic book, "Buffalo Bill." You decided that Abraham Lincoln was a good president because he listened to poor people and was kind to them. You read Babe Ruth's autobiography and thought of your own life's dreams and how they might yet be fulfilled. Families have problems the same as does yours. Story book people have to make decisions. So do you. They sometimes make mistakes. Who does not? Loneliness and discouragement could be somehow brushed aside when you were deeply involved in the problems of others within the pages of your book.

You traveled with dreamers and doers. You traveled to far places and back to your own home town. You visualized castles and mountains, and felt the rocking of a boat on stormy seas.

Citizenship grew with good library habits involving care of property, promptness, sharing, thoughtfulness of others, wise use of time—all this in a library, the magic world of books. Can we deny it to any child?

10. THERAPEUTIC USE OF A LIBRARY

MANY SCHOOL CHILDREN are not meeting their problems successfully, nor do they seem to be growing emotionally

mature. This is shown by their unacceptable behavior and attitudes. Their academic progress is hampered by their maladjustments. A school child cannot learn "the fundamentals" until he is physically, emotionally, and mentally ready to learn. His emotional security normally develops in the home but family antagonisms, which often lead to a broken home, breed suspicious and belligerent attitudes. The child who is denied economic or material security may suffer anxiety, fear, envy, despair, and neglect. Every child needs a deep sense of belonging which enables him to see himself in relation to all things, a sense of values and moral purpose which might be called "spiritual security." One who is denied this security may be confused, antisocial, and unstable.

Psychologists tell us that a child who presents problem behavior may have this maladjustment because he has excessive deprivation, frustration, or insecurity which do not give him an opportunity to fulfill the basic needs in developing his personality. The home and community organization may help, but in many cases the major obligation falls upon the school curriculum and the teacher. Many children look to the school as their only stable help. Each child's environment and experiences must be expanded and enriched if he is to realize better behavior goals.

A child's reading constitutes one very important form of experience. It is a vicarious experience that can be very effective in giving him guidance. Such an experience is called bibliotherapy which means therapeutic reading. Therapeutic means healing. That is, the reading of certain books may help to heal a broken heart, or a rebellious spirit. This is done when the reader identifies himself with persons or situations in the book. At every age level the child looks for pieces of himself in book characters and situations. But even if he does not recognize or admit any relation between his experience and that of the character in the book, his attitude toward his own problem may be

clarified. New avenues of thought and action will be opened to him.

The method of presenting bibliotherapeutic material to the child depends upon the nature of the child, the seriousness of his problem, and the rapport between the teacher and child. The child's evaluation of a book and its assimilation into his own life can be encouraged by the teacher, but the ultimate conclusion must be the child's.

May Hill Arbuthnot, in her **Children and Books*** cites an example of the use of a book in a manner that is essentially therapeutic:

"A librarian helped one small boy to new insight through reading. She discovered a particularly forlorn ten-year-old, ragged, underfed, and glum. She gave him **Augustus and the River**. He came back grinning for the first time since she had known him. He asked for more about Augustus. She asked him why he liked Augustus so much and he said, 'Oh, Gustus does such funny things all by himself. He has fun.' Boy and librarian discussed their hero's adventures at length. Finally the boy looked up shyly and remarked, 'Gustus didn't have much of a home, did he? But anyway he had fun!' Augustus, who is really a young 'Grape of Wrath' cheerful and undepressed, had given this boy a new slant on his own life. With Augustus, he had not only escaped but he had found himself. With Augustus he had regained a much needed sense of life's possible adventures and fun."

A good library is essential if the right book is to be found at the right time for each child. The first step for the librarian or one in charge of the books, with the help of teachers, is to determine the most serious problems of children in the particular school or community. A list of these problems should be made. The next step is to find books on various reading levels that deal with the problems.

A file of cards on these subjects should

*Arbuthnot, May Hill. **Children and Books**. Scott, Foresman and Co. 1947

be made, stating the problems indicated, the author, title, grade placement, and annotation. Examples:

SIZE

Beim, Jerrold

Smallest Boy in the Class

Morrow

I. L. 1-3

D. L. 3

The story of a boy who was called Tiny because of his size, until he proved that stature is not always measured by feet and inches. His triumph came when everyone realized that he had the biggest heart in the class.

PLAIN

Gates, Doris

Sensible Kate

Viking

L. L. 4-7

D. L. 7

Being neither cute nor pretty, 10-year-old Kate, orphan and family helper, felt she'd better stick to being just sensible—and she was sensible. How Kate learns the meaning of nonsense, and the joy that even a red-headed, freckled little girl is needed by someone, makes a heart-warming story.

PHYSICAL HANDICAP: Eyes, Hearing, Crippled, Poor Health, Speech Defects

Herman, William

Hearts Courageous—Twelve**Who Achieved**

I. L. 7-9

Dutton

D. L. 8

Twelve short biographies of men and women who overcame their physical handicaps and achieved fame were Demosthenes, John Milton, Joseph Wedgewood, Ludwig Beethoven, John Kitt, Frances Parkman, Edward L. Tondreau, Robert Louis Stevenson, Charles Steinmetz, Helen Keller, Franklin D. Roosevelt, and Glen Cunningham.

Besides helping the child to understand himself and his own personal problems, there is a therapy that reading brings in understanding of other times and peoples, where the patterns of living differ from his own but problems may be similar. If the child reads with imagination, the fictional characters become real and historical persons live. A 15-year-old Serbian boy sought admission to our country claiming as his

American friends, Benjamin Franklin and Abraham Lincoln. Michael Pupin became a great American citizen because he read our history with imagination. When children discover for themselves analogies between reading and living, then book therapy means real understanding. In books lie experiences for them only less personal than life itself.

Example:

DIFFERENT PLACES WHERE PEOPLE**LIVE:** West

Warren, William Stephen

Ride, Cowboy, Ride!

I. L. 4-6

McKay

D. L. 5

The best part of Danny's 12th birthday was receiving permission to ride his cow pony out to his father's cattle ranch to go with the spring roundup. The five or six weeks spent with the outfit were packed with wonderful experiences for Danny. He had his own string of horses and took part in every phase of the roundup just like a real cowhand.

OTHER WAYS OF LIFE: Life of Migrant Workers.

Gates, Doris

Blue Willow

I. L. 558

Viking

D. L. 8

"Ever since dust and drought had driven them out of northern Texas, the Lorkins had traveled hither and yon wherever there were crops to be harvested. Now they had reached the cotton fields of the San Joaquin Valley in California, and ten-year-old Janey wished intensely that when asked, 'How long are you going to stay?' she might answer, 'As long as we want to.' Her desire is finally fulfilled and Janet's most cherished possession, the blue willow plate, is brought forth from its wrappings to grace the mantlepiece of the first real home that the family has known in five long years. Here is an appealing story of courage and fortitude handled with dignity and considerable skill." Library Journal.

MANY RACES—ALL AMERICAN: Polish Estes, Eleanor

The Hundred Dresses

I. L. 4-6

Harcourt

D. L. 5

A story about a little girl who told her schoolmates that she had a hundred dresses at home, all lined up in her closet, but who wore the same faded blue dress to school every day. It reveals the pathos of human relationship and the suffering of those who are different.

Bibliotherapy is not a cure-all. It will not solve all problems. It will not help the child who is greatly retarded. It will not help the child who needs skilled professional help. But literary experience is one strong effective resource which many a child can utilize in meeting his needs. Many children have found inspiration, guidance, and satisfaction from reading.

lating it in the light of one's experience, anticipation, and emotional reaction to the immediate situation. This is as true of environmental sounds as it is of language communication. The slamming of a car door in the middle of the night is translated by the listener by what has happened previously, by what he expects to happen, and by his emotional reaction.

To the light sleeper, the slamming of the car door is an annoyance. He must now fight sleeplessness. To the sick-bed watcher, it is relief. The doctor has come! To the wait-upper, it is joy. The traveler has returned. To the timid, it is fear. He waits for the unfamiliar footfalls.

Many environmental sounds, background music, wind in the trees, the bubbling brook, are heard but not translated into action or reaction because they are only half listened to. "I was only half listening," like many common expressions is true. We are aware of these sounds but we neither do anything about or with them.

In other environmental sounds there is a definite resistance built up. Especially is this true of jarring, unpleasant sounds, street noise, clock ticking, refrigerator motor humming. We learn not to listen to them.

In the same way as the infant learns to accept, to respond to, or to ignore environmental sounds, does the child learn to accept, respond to, or ignore language communication. He can be nonattentive, only half listening. He can let it "go in one ear and out the other" thereby not remembering what he has heard. He can not understand and therefore cannot accept. But what the teacher must not forget is that correct listening can be taught. It can be improved.

Listening is made up of many things. The child must hear, comprehend, accept, analyze, evaluate, translate into thought or action. The wise teacher will center instruction around each of these needed abilities.

The child can be taught to hear accurately. He can be taught to distinguish sounds, to understand inflection. His ear as well as

11. HEARING ISN'T LISTENING

AMONG THE MANY DELIGHTFUL MEMORIES that I have filed under classroom experiences are the times I have seen groups of children gathered around a tape recorder earnestly trying to improve their English. Please give me the soap, Thank you, I have the soap, they singsong, their black eyes shining in eagerness as they hurdle the *th* sounds and blissfully hiss the *ses*. What impresses me is not their burning desire to improve their English nor their English improvement. The wonderful thing to me about this activity is that these children are receiving priceless training in listening skill.

When we think of language activities, generally, we think only of speaking, reading, and writing. Not every teacher adds to this list the number one activity—listening. Since most of us are endowed with the ability to hear, we take listening skill for granted. We never realize that there is as much difference between the power of hearing and the ability to listen as there is between the power to make sounds and the ability to form articulate speech.

Listening is perceiving sound and trans-

his tongue can be trained in the niceties of enunciation.

He can be taught to understand words, their shaded meanings, their emphasis in sentence placement. He can be taught sentence construction from the time he begins to string words together.

Even in the first grade, a child should have a share in planning the listening standards his group wants to maintain. These standards should be clear, simple, brief. They should be based upon initial acceptance of what is said until the mind has had time to analyze and evaluate. Most misconceptions in communication arise because the listener rejects what is said before he has a chance to digest it. He cannot analyze what is said because he did not hear it. He heard only what he wanted to believe.

Every classroom has activities centered around dramatic play, hearing and telling stories, giving and receiving directions, sharing opinions, sharing knowledge, enriching appreciations and understandings, but perhaps these activities can become even more instructional than they are, if the teacher is constantly aware of the necessity of teaching the child to listen with accuracy, comprehension, acceptance, and intelligence.

12. THE IMPORTANCE OF LISTENING

SINCE WE ARE GRAVELY CONCERNED with improving the reading skill of Indian pupils, should we not start with the first skill of the problem—improving listening habits? Listening is not to be confused with hearing. Auditory perception is certainly important, but listening goes beyond hearing. To listen, a child has to concentrate on what is being said, how it is being said, and the meaning of what is being said. Such concentration takes complete attention. There is also a responsibility on the part of the teacher to speak as distinctly and correctly as possible. Errors in usage, slurring

the "r's" and dropping the "g" on "ing" endings by an instructor only add to the problem. The skill of listening also includes the ability to perceive the fine variations and delicate shadings of sounds characteristic of good speech. In other words, listening is "ear training."

When children have the opportunity to share their experiences, they learn to listen as well as to talk. They must have many opportunities to learn when and how to listen. A bilingual child so many times hears without comprehending; he hears the words, but does not get the meaning of the words. In other words, he has not developed hearing comprehension. Children must be able to understand what is said and read to them before they undertake the additional task of reading.

We all know that learning to listen carefully is a part of readiness for reading. Since readiness is a part of reading at all levels, listening would be a phase of reading at all levels. A child has to distinguish sounds that make up words. Keen ears are vital to reading because a child who hears words correctly can use what he hears as a clue to identify the printed word. It is necessary to listen to be able to identify sounds, to note differences and similarities between sounds, and to read new words independently through being able to hear sounds in the different parts of words and to associate those sounds with the letters in the words.

A child should begin listening to the sounds of words. Then he should learn to distinguish those sounds. For example, he should be able to distinguish "big" from "beg", "house" from "horse", "celery" from "salary." Also, he should be able to distinguish where one word ends and another begins. As he listens, he should be able to determine that "come here" are two separate units of speech, not one. Children are not born with an awareness of where words begin and end. They have to acquire it through careful listening. Listening to words that begin with the same sound or end

with the same sound, and listening to words that rhyme help train pupils for an adequate foundation for reading.

Dr. Tireman, who has done extensive research in the area of teaching English as a second language, believes that many bilinguals make errors in speech patterns because they have not heard the words correctly.* Such errors can be due to poor listening, or insufficient auditory acuity to make the fine distinction of some English sounds. He says that the teacher must pronounce correctly before he can expect the children to do so.

Thus, we see that listening is a tool which children have to learn to use. Training and practice are necessary for a child to acquire the ability to detect the fine distinctions of sounds. Listening is the foundation of speech. Pupils have definite responsibilities as listeners and should be encouraged to set listening standards. Teachers have very definite responsibilities in providing the correct speech for such listening activities. Bilinguals will have added difficulties, if they do not hear acceptable speech. The teacher's speech, therefore, has to be of good quality. With these thoughts in mind, let's all work hard to improve the skill of listening.

* Tireman, L.S. *Teaching Spanish-Speaking Children*. University of New Mexico Press, Albuquerque, N. Mex. 1951

13. WHY PUBLISH A SCHOOL NEWSPAPER?

A SCHOOL NEWSPAPER can be an instructional instrument of great value. This premise is recognized by educators for they know it can be more than an English assignment. They know it provides the students and staff with an opportunity to work together in outlining objectives for publishing the paper; and in setting up standards to meet these objectives. It is generally conceded that everyone likes to see his name in print so the newspaper provides motiva-

tion for improving the quality of work in the English classes. It is a medium through which students express their own opinions. By performing all the duties involved, they have opportunities to develop leadership, responsibility, cooperation, initiative, and tolerance.

In many Bureau schools, the publishing of a school newspaper is a tradition that is taken for granted and goes on year after year. New teachers and students come into the school and are expected to contribute to it, but that it is published every other Friday is not enough information to insure worthwhile contributions. They need to know why the school has a paper, and what standards they are expected to meet; then and only then, do they have a basis for doing their best work, for making their best contributions.

It is possible by reading the school newspaper to know several important things about the school. By the subjects and the tone of the editorial page, one finds out what the students consider important. The sports column reveals whether competitive athletics are more important than the intramural program. If there are reports of both programs, one concludes that there is balance in the athletic program. It is easy to know that the staff and students can laugh at themselves if the jokes and cartoons are based on humorous situations at the school and not copied from some other paper.

The appearance of the paper is an indication of the school's pride in it; pride that is shown whether it is a printed paper with photographs or one that is mimeographed. Of course, all schools would prefer the printshop product to that of the mimeograph room, but pride can be had in either as evidenced by top quality work. What happens in the production room is of vast importance for it is the appearance of the paper that catches the eye of the reader and makes him reach for it. Clear copy with a pleasing format causes him to believe the paper is worth the time it will take to read it.

Clear copy is a must.

However, having something worthwhile to say and saying it in an interesting way are the two factors that hold the interest of the reader. Articles that have been written thoughtfully on subjects pertinent to the school and edited carefully to insure correct spelling and punctuation produce the desired quality in writing. As students write and edit their work, teachers have an excellent opportunity to teach word power, sentence and paragraph construction, punctuation, and spelling.

Now as plans are made to publish the newspaper for next year, it would be well to ask the following questions:

1. Is there a real need for the publication?
2. What are the objectives of the publication?
3. Does it carry out the objectives set up by the staff and students?
4. Is it made an instrument of instruction?
5. Are all departments of the school represented?
6. Does it warrant the time devoted to it?
7. Is the material in good taste?
8. How often should it be published?
9. Is the school proud of it?

14. HOME MANAGEMENT— A CHALLENGE

OUR HOMEMAKERS OF TOMORROW are the girls we have in our classes today. We are helping to develop an important group which will offer its contribution to society, to industry, and not in the least, to the home.

Many of our students in home economics will, undoubtedly, become full time employees in business or in homes either before or after marriage; some will go directly into their own homes as homemakers and will eventually become mothers; others may be inspired to pursue the field of home economics further with the hope of making it a career; while still others may need to seek

part-time employment in this field as a means of supplementing the family income. But, in any event, it is reasonable to assume that all of our students of home economics are potential homemakers.

Because of our responsibility as educators in the field of home economics, and our understanding of the tremendous impact which our educational program can have on the future of our country, it is essential that we examine our motives. We must consider from all angles the objectives and outcomes as they affect the individual needs and the collective good of all the students, and we must critically examine the curriculum. Let us ask ourselves:

1. What are our objectives? What do we want the students to be equipped to do when they leave our classes to take their places in the world?
2. What values or standards are we stressing in our day-to-day association with students?
3. What practical skills and techniques are we teaching which will enable students to meet the challenges of the work-a-day world into which they will go—whether as homemakers or in the business field?
4. Are we using every opportunity at our command to give students practical experience in homemaking and the necessary skills to maintain an attractive home on a modest income?
5. Are we giving the students false impressions of what makes a happy home?
6. Do we, through our teaching methods, cause students to place values on unimportant things? Are we, in our teaching of home economics, overemphasizing the importance of wall-to-wall carpeting, of sterling, of crystal, of custom-made draperies?
7. Do we, the teachers, give students the opportunity to plan with us the new furnishings for the departments so they will know what period, what price, the

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suitability of type and color and materials for the particular room or rooms in which they are to be used? Do we involve them in the actual arrangement of furniture in the rooms; in the selection of accessories such as drapery or curtain materials, pictures, etc. to complete the decorative scheme?

8. Are we in our teaching placing enough emphasis on consumer buying? Are we developing skills and attitudes which will enable all students of home economics to exercise their creative abilities in the construction or selection of furniture and furnishings which will produce a functionally sound and attractive atmosphere in the home?

It is essential that we establish realistic standards in accordance with the students' prospective incomes, rather than any set standards which we might advocate as the desirable or correct way of living.

While it is indeed desirable to teach homemaking in modern, well-equipped laboratories with the most up-to-the-minute methods at our command, it is also equally desirable, if not imperative, that we not fail to stress time-honored values which are an integral part of our American heritage, namely, industry, economy, ingenuity, and practicality.

Let us teach students to do a good job with the materials at hand. Sometimes it is the test of a good homemaker to turn out a finished product (a meal, a garment, an article for the home, etc.) with substitutions not shown in the recipe or in the directions, and often the end result is superior. This ingenuity makes chefs and designers instead of cooks and seamstresses. These innovations can prove to be most delightfully satisfying experiences for the teacher and the students.

Let us teach students to make a baked alaska, but also teach them to make a pudding; teach them to wash, dry, and press with the latest model appliances, but also teach them to hand launder; teach them to

use the newest sweeper, but also teach them to clean with the simple tools at hand; teach them to sew on the newest machine with all attachments, but also teach them to sew by hand; teach them to plan and select furnishings for a "dream" house, but also teach them to plan furnishings for a simple home or apartment so it will reflect good taste and radiate warmth and hospitality; teach them to plan and prepare a banquet, but also teach them to plan and cook a hearty, delicious, economical family meal; teach them to appreciate good quality and to choose the best quality affordable, but also teach them how to select a good substitute which will serve the same need if the occasion warrants. There comes a time in many lives when it is simply not practical to "let them eat cake."

Not every student in our classes will go out to a job or into a home which operates on an unlimited budget. Quite the contrary. Owners of businesses and homes in the highest financial brackets practice sound, studied economy, and it is essential that we, as teachers, be alert to this fact.

Recently, we visited several classrooms in the Home Economics Department at one of the United Pueblos Agency schools. The Christmas trees in two of the laboratories were decorated with ornaments which the students had made from bits of materials and paper. They were exceptionally lovely and showed originality and certainly ingenuity on the part of the students. These students were justly proud. Why? Because they, themselves, had planned and made the decorations. This spoke well for the teacher who encouraged such creativity.

This same attitude can be encouraged and developed with the students in planning and making furnishings for a home service cottage, for a laboratory, or for individual projects.

We should resolve to use every resource available to us as home economics educators to give students real-life experiences in our courses today.

15. EVALUATION OF NUTRITION EDUCATION

THE National Food Conference held in Washington, D. C., February 24, 1958, was attended by over 750 delegates representing all phases of food production and marketing, as well as food educators. Most speakers stressed the fact that we live in a land of plenty, and yet as a nation we are not enjoying optimum health. Our farms are producing more food than can be consumed in this country; our markets handle a big variety of foods at all price levels that are attractively packaged and arranged on the shelves; and most families have sufficient money to purchase adequate food. We have the facilities to eat well, and yet one-third of the men entering the armed services have dietary deficiencies; one family in three fails to get the right amount of calcium; one in four is short of vitamin C; one in six doesn't get enough vitamin G; and 20 percent of the adult population is overweight. Poor nutrition is not a matter of supply, but rather inadequate information of what constitutes good nutrition and the application of this information to each individual. Nutrition education is needed at all levels in order to establish good eating habits or to correct poor ones.

A direct application of the findings of the food conference can be made to the feeding program in Bureau boarding schools. Funds are available for the purchase of food that meets the nutritional requirements of school-age children. Adequate staffs in the food departments make it possible to have variety in the preparation of the food. Attractive dining rooms have been provided, and time has been allowed for the serving of meals. In fact, everything possible is being done to promote optimum health through good nutrition. The goal is reached with only a part of the children, and it is desirable to evaluate the nutrition program in order to determine where it can be strengthened.

Eating habits are established in child-

hood, and these may be good or bad depending upon the training the child receives. In most cases with Indian children, this becomes the responsibility of the Bureau schools. Food practices can be controlled to the point that well-balanced meals are provided for the children, but unless this food is eaten the children will not attain optimum health. Well-planned nutrition education carried on in all classrooms, based on the overall food program, should help in developing the right food habits.

Children frequently reject new foods. Since many of the foods served in the school dining room are new to children coming from Indian homes, this is an ever-present problem. Menus should be discussed in the classroom and the names of new foods should be learned. Children should become acquainted with the appearance of the new food, and if possible, should have an opportunity of tasting the food in the classroom. Children should be encouraged to eat more of the new food and should report back to the class after the meal is over. It may be necessary to check many times in order to establish a liking for the food.

Young children are interested in the weight record on their growth charts, and this could be used to point out good health habits including eating the food that is served in the dining room.

Older elementary students are interested in the criteria of a well-nourished child. If this study can be combined with an experiment with rats which proves the effect of nutrition on the body, the children may be encouraged to change, if necessary, their own eating habits.

Many other area of nutrition education should be included throughout the school program. It is not sufficient to introduce the subject once a year and then forget it. A continuous, organized program is needed to change the present food habits or to develop new ones in order that learning will carry over into the summer months when the children are not in school. To make the

maximum use of the opportunity provided by controlled feeding as set up in the Bureau schools, each teacher should spend some time in the dining room during the meal hour. In many schools the teachers accompany their students to the dining room during the noon hour, and while supervising them pick up many ideas to be included in the classroom teaching of nutrition.

The idea of nutrition education in the Bureau schools is not new, and there may be a tendency to pass up these suggestions with the feeling that they contain nothing new. The fact that must be faced is that much of the present nutrition education is not functioning. Instead of children building optimum health with the good food that is served in the dining room, many have not learned to eat the new foods and too much of it goes into the garbage cans. Food patterns of Indian children are not changing nor are the new ideas of nutrition carrying back to the homes.

One speaker at the National Food Conference pointed up the national problem in his concluding remarks: "We have not done a good job in educating people to the importance of nutrition in good health. What can be done to make nutrition education more effective?"

16. WHAT CAN MUSIC MEAN TO CHILDREN?

THIS QUESTION was asked of one of the high school music classes recently. The students were enthusiastic in their responses, and their answers went something like this: "Music brings joy to children's lives; music helps children get rid of troublesome thoughts and feelings; music adds something beautiful and useful to their lives; music stimulates the imagination and helps one to be 'transported' to other worlds; music gives those who sing or play an instrument a sense of doing something worthwhile, and gives those who listen a sense of

leisure time."

If music meant just those things to children, it would certainly be worth all the time, money, and effort that are required to present music in the schools. But that is only the beginning. It can mean all that and more.

Music uplifts and inspires. What child can sing a song like "Trees" and not have a keener appreciation of nature? What child can sing a lovely hymn or Christmas carol and not have a greater feeling of reverence? Appreciation of each season is enhanced by seasonal songs. Of course, the teacher has the responsibility of encouraging proper interpretation of the songs. A skillful teacher—not necessarily a trained musician—can give impetus to understanding, appreciation, and interpretation of the many delightfully beautiful lyrics that are available. Children have a keen sense of appreciation and they "feel" with deep understanding, when encouraged to do so. Much of the beauty and grandeur of the world is within our reach through easily obtainable music.

As we all know, modern life is a challenge to our youth, whether that challenge be desirable or undesirable. More leisure time, less responsibility at home, less supervision of activities, more opportunities to observe and participate in many types of entertainment, and many other factors call for the cooperation of all adults in assisting the child to spend his time to better advantage, and to be more selective in his activities and entertainment. Music cannot be considered a cure-all, but better citizenship is definitely encouraged through music. The stirring patriotic songs of our Nation, and the wonderful stories concerning these songs, contribute to a better understanding of the history of our country and cause a child to develop more pride in the principles and ideals of our democracy. Loyalty to these principles is gradually and effectively encouraged. The entire history and growth of our country can be followed in its songs. The songs of other nations are also available.

Music gives the child an emotional outlet that contributes to good citizenship. It teaches discipline, for without cooperative effort and individual responsibility and dependability, a singing group or a band is very ineffective. Participation in music groups has definite value as an aid to character building, because through good music the child associates with the best in literature and has an opportunity to give of his best in producing good music. I have known many children who were lacking in cooperation in many things, but who found a sense of cooperation in music groups. Many so-called problem children have overcome some of their difficulties and reduced some of their tensions through cooperating with others in singing in a chorus or playing in a band. Poise and confidence are often developed rapidly through music participation. By identifying himself with a musical group a child can often forget himself and can frequently gain a greater feeling of importance to a group. Music has a great unifying influence which carries over into other phases of living.

All of this is what I have found music to mean to the children I have been fortunate enough to teach.

17. ART IN INDIAN EDUCATION

THE SPIRIT OF INDIAN ART lies in the meaning of the design. It represents a philosophical concept of life. Though essentially beautiful as a design, its beauty to the Indians is in its symbolism.

The Indian concept of art is different from the Western concept of art. It belongs to a world where expression is secondary to the idea; where the art objects are never collected and displayed as such. The Indian artist creates essentially to convey his idea rather than to create an art object per se. Competition as it is known to the Western world is totally foreign to the Indian. Because of this there is a reluctance to sign

his name. Instead he will use a symbol. For example, if "eagle" is part of his name, then he will use it as his signature. It appears that this reluctance stems from a belief that his idea would be lost if another read his name. This ancient belief still persists. It illustrates a tribal concept of life. It is particularly characteristic of the Indian's function of art; that everyone shares regardless of the degree of his ability with no limitations on his participation.

An Indian's paintings are essentially portrayals of his emotions. He has an innate knowledge of structure and harmony of line; of the man in repose and in action; and an instinctive knowledge of how to use color. This is Indian art—an interpretation of Indian life and the forms of life existing around him. It is the thing he knows well. It permeates all the channels of learning as well as activities in his tribal existence. His art can serve as a highway in the process of acculturation. Educators in Indian schools should consider art in correlation with other areas of learning, since it in itself is the total act of learning. It involves the mind, the hand, and the emotions of the Indian in his interpretation of the world.

Indian children come from their own familiar homes to an unfamiliar environment and a strange teacher whose language they have difficulty in understanding. The Indian child's lack of an English-speaking vocabulary and the wide gap between his home environment and that of the school are possibly the only factors wherein he differs from the English-speaking child. His basic needs are similar to those of children anywhere.

The Indian child has the following basic areas to cover before he is ready to learn to read: (a) to develop a sense of social adequacy and self-confidence in the new environment, (b) to broaden his concepts and experiences, (c) to develop a relatively wide English vocabulary and facility in using it, (d) to develop audiovisual motor skills, and (e) to learn to solve his problems as he meets

them.

Most Indian children do not have a reading background in their preschool years. However, they are told stories by their elders. Their concepts are derived from auditory and physical experiences. For example, stories are told to them in songs and legends, or they are portrayed in dances and other art forms. Thus they have not had a need for a related vocabulary. However, they do have concepts; they do participate in meaningful activities; they do have experiences. For example, before entering school the Indian child participates wholeheartedly in all of the creative activities of his tribe. He joins in the ceremonials; he sings or dances, whatever his assigned role may be; he designs and creates objects of utilitarian art; he may create purely personal art in order to release personal concepts of what he has seen, heard, or felt. This is his creative expression; his language.

There are some valid reasons for reading and general learning retardation of the Indian; however, he is capable of learning and we must give him the needed skills. We tend to blame his reading retardation upon a language handicap; on social environment; on racial traits and tendencies; or on the use of too-difficult textbooks. There are many ways we work toward remedying his defects. His interest in art is a part of him and should be used as a motivating force to create in him a desire to read. It can be used from the very beginning of his formal education.

The Indian's adjustment to non-Indian standard of academic achievement has been a difficult one. This suggests a course of action in teaching the Indian student, taking into consideration art as a medium in his education.

The innate art ability of the Indian could be a complement to all learning experiences. We must keep in mind that art in Indian life, as in all life, is not just a cultural refinement. It lies deep within the biological and psychological needs of man in his

search for integration with all men.

18. CITIZENSHIP IN ELEMENTARY GRADES

THE FIRST CONTACTS of children in the home and in the immediate community provide experiences in democratic living. It is left to the schools, however, to extend and supplement these socializing influences and to train children in good citizenship habits.

How Children Learn Citizenship

Children do not learn citizenship through "telling." Except, in part, they do not learn it through knowing how good government operates. It is learned through living in a miniature democracy in which children under teacher guidance work out solutions of problems that are significant to them. The kinds of problems vary greatly in schools and on reservations but we come up with much the same in values everywhere. Classroom problems may be personal or they may be of a social nature. They may include the more or less immediate daily problems, and all of those which children face singly or as members of a group working together. They are concerned with the business of living, not just with daily lessons involving numbers or language. Schools, therefore, must be sensitive not only to problems that are evident; they also must discover problems.

There is the basic need of learning how to work constructively and how to get along with other children: how to share common property such as books and materials. Opportunities are provided in many elementary schools for children to work together and share ideas with others. When well managed, this involves group thinking, group planning, and making group decisions. There is satisfaction to children when they work together on a biography notebook, take excursions to gather items for their museum, plan and carry out a poster exhibit, prepare a joint report, or make a relief map of the community. In such projects

when all concerned are not in accord, democracy often operates by means of approval or disapproval to secure the cooperation of members.

There is also the need of playing together: learning how to "take turns" and how to play fair. A teacher when playing with children has an ideal opportunity, through example, to inculcate ideals of fair play. Children make new friends in play. They acquire the ability to accept rules of the games in sharing penalties as well as fun. Play offers opportunity for practice in leadership. It teaches how to accept and to use helpful criticism.

School Should Give Practice in Democratic Living

A good elementary school makes use of regular procedures to give practice in democratic living. This may include pupil responsibility for helping with lunch periods, answering the door, recording necessary information on charts, caring for plants and animals, taking part in fire drills, distributing supplies for drawing and other projects, having some responsibility for arranging material on bulletin boards, helping to keep the classroom attractive and clean, watching room temperatures and making necessary adjustments, and walking quietly through corridors. Committees instead of individuals may do many of these things with assignments posted on bulletin boards.

Opportunities should be offered children to cultivate the art of being good listeners. Listening experiences, which may be active and very valuable, may take the form of appreciation of certain radio programs, recordings, or sound films (preceded by talks to help children understand them). Or, children may listen to the teacher or a classmate read or tell a story. Verbal and imaginative responses may result if children find enjoyment in this. Presenting experiences are even more valuable and may include dramatization, oral reading, assembly programs, pageants, singing, making an-

nouncements and brief oral reports, free conversation, or choral reading. Throughout these activities, which often serve to awaken latent abilities in children, the teacher will strive to develop thoughtfulness of others and to obtain courteous appreciation of all contributions made.

Patriotism and interest in past history are desirable fields for young citizens. Experiences in learning about historical events like the making of our flag are worthwhile. Many of these learnings may be made more vivid through dramatization, which will have definite values in speech improvement and in development of self-confidence and poise if well rehearsed and well done. Visits to places of historical interest and the reading of old documents or historical highway markers can help children to an understanding of the past history of their community. Observation of national holidays can develop pride, can familiarize children with the best traditions of the past, and help them acquire historic sense. The flag salute and the raising and lowering of the flag are important to young citizens. Patriotic and folksongs, our own and those of other nations, may serve to represent to children steps in the evolution of democratic ways. Stories of famous composers may be introduced. Through biography, poetry, story, and legend, children become acquainted with the great people of our history. Out of this should grow an appreciation of the many advantages we enjoy due to the work and efforts of those who have lived before us. We need to stress pride in the achievements of our country but at the same time we must avoid a boasting kind of patriotism.

Developing Leadership and Followership

There is need in the miniature democracy of developing capable leadership and also good "followership." Sometimes this is done through such vital agencies as 4-H Clubs, the Junior Red Cross, Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, Camp Fire, or other organized groups. In other instances, classrooms are

organized for government independent of any special group. The children write a simple constitution. They elect officers who carry out assigned duties and report on their activities. Sometimes a natural leader will emerge in the course of an activity. This is desirable for many types of leadership are needed and all children can become leaders on occasion.

Living together in dormitories is full of constructive possibilities for learning how to become competent citizens. Boys and girls in clubs or committees can help work out regulations looking toward the respecting of the rights of others as well as respecting school property and the property of other children. It is important that children live happily in dormitories and at school. To do so they must learn to give and take in all social situations which dormitories and the school provide. There is leisure time to be planned and desirable ways of using it. Perhaps the environment suggests picnics, hiking, gathering seeds and cones, or studying birds. Elementary pupils are old enough for hobbies. Dormitories may present room limitations for some hobbies but they can always accommodate those of painting, drawing, clay modeling, simple woodcarving, and stamp collecting. Children need privacy and quiet at times. They need places where they can retire to read in comfort; if the light is not good, perhaps it can be improved. Hospitality may need emphasizing. We should not neglect giving children practice in greeting guests and showing them courtesies.

Boys and girls in Indian schools need opportunities to visit with adult citizens as well as classmates in their immediate environment. People with varied experiences or those with special skills may be invited to visit classrooms and discuss with children things about which they have special information. These people may include community workers whose contacts will emphasize the importance of learning about public services. They may be school employees who do not regularly come to the classroom such

as the dairyman, the farmer, or the engineer. They may include the local storekeeper, the postmaster, parents, or neighbors. Elderly people in the neighborhood should not be overlooked, nor through them, the opportunity to teach reverence for old age. Parents who have something to offer in skills or hobbies give children a feeling of respect and security. Veterans who have served in far away countries can often bring geography to life. Some of these visits may result in an improved coordination of the school program with local efforts for community improvement. Exhibits of handicrafts brought to school by visitors often will inspire children to want to make and to do things.

Extending the Child's Environment

Children on Indian reservations, however, no longer think exclusively in terms of their immediate environment. The use of radio, news magazines, and various types of visual aids has broadened their thinking to some extent. Participation in World War II and the Korean War by various members of their families is making them more global-minded than formerly. This is encouraging, but we need to extend study of lands and peoples other than our own as a basis for teaching tolerance and understanding. One of our central aims should be to develop good attitudes among children toward all peoples of the world.

The school must furnish many and varied social situations in which the child can participate. He must learn proper table manners and rules for healthful living. And in this connection the school often must supply the needed information, the experience, and the guidance. The child must know what the society about him demands from citizens of his age. We should make sure that Indian boys and girls represent their people well when they mingle among whites. There is great opportunity here for showing the many good qualities which racial minorities possess.

19. SCHOOL ASSEMBLIES

SCHOOL ASSEMBLIES should be taken as much for granted as school lunches, intermissions, or time set for plays and games. However, some Indian schools have no assemblies except sporadic or spontaneous ones. A teacher or teachers may be persuaded to give a program for some special occasion or a visitor at the school may be doubly welcome if he is also a potential speaker for a hurriedly called assembly but there are no systematic and planned assembly programs in such schools.

The new concept of assembly programs would greatly alleviate the fear and dread that many experienced teachers still harbor if it were better understood and practiced. In the first place, the assembly period is designed for children and geared to their ability and stage of development. The teacher guides and directs before hand but is conspicuously absent during the time the children are "performing." Part of the value for them comes in their going ahead without direction at the crucial hour of "production." Perfection is no longer the goal it once was. Deciding what to do and carrying on when in a tight place is much better training for children than just memorizing something and repeating it. Usually the audience appreciates and enjoys the performance more if children retain their naturalness even though mistakes may be made. An assembly program is much like a child's drawing. It is a form of self-expression and should not be judged by adult standards. Wise teachers point out to children, however, that sloppy work which is not their best endeavor is hardly worth taking the time of others to see and to hear, and will meet with little appreciation.

An assembly program, for the most part, should grow out of classroom activities. As simple a thing as demonstrating the accomplishment of a Minimum Essential Goal can hold an audience at rapt attention. A beginner announces, "I can write my name," then

goes over to a portable chalkboard and proves his assertion. After an orientation period a child says, "I will show you how to make a bed" and he does. Another demonstrates the approved technique for using a coping saw. Telling stories with flannel-boards and figures gives excellent training in English, in manipulation and does not fail to fascinate a child or an adult audience. When children write their own play there is little likelihood that their lines will be forgotten. The thought is theirs; they composed it once and can do it again if necessary. The theme carries them through the play.

Another appropriate type of assembly program is furnished by the culmination of units of work. By the time children have gathered material relative to the unit, they have discovered many things to be shared eagerly with others. It would almost be a case of impression without expression were it not so. Psychologically then, it is a sound procedure when the opportunity is afforded to share their findings and impressions with others. It is natural for children to perform for others and if such acting is not made "legitimate," children may become annoying "show-offs" who would rather be punished than ignored.

Some of the most commonly used forms of entertainment include dramatizations, puppet shows, one-act plays, skits, quiz programs, pantomimes, interviews, forums, tableaux, shadow plays, debates, impersonations, demonstrations, dancing, singing, rhythm bands, orchestras, and music of various other types.

The responsibility for conducting assemblies belongs to the school administrator. His planning and execution of them reflect his faith in the importance of this program activity for children. Jointly he and his staff should plan a definite time for assemblies, the number of programs per year, the beginning and closing dates (these should begin soon after school starts and stop close to the end of school), the time to be allotted, the policy for student participation, and the

designation of opening formalities.

Shortening classes in high school on assembly day seems to be more in favor than omitting classes in rotation. The teacher of the self-contained classroom with a flexible daily schedule can, by putting first things first, leave out what the children are best able to miss. Most likely, it will vary each time.

For assemblies involving children beyond the primary level, formal openings are favored to give continuity and dignity as well as to create a good esprit de corps. The presiding of the student council adds much to the spirit of the assembly. Some schools have the student body rise at the first note of the "Call to Colors" and two flag bearers bring the American flag to position on the stage. The student president leads in the flag salute. This is followed by the National Anthem and the school song led by one of the students. A recitation of a school creed is highly desirable.

There can be a standing or central committee to help with general scheduling, makeup, lighting, properties, publicity, and costuming when these are necessary but the particular details are left up to the teacher in charge of the assembly program for the day.

Many of the Minimum Essential Goals can be attained through the medium of the regularly conducted assembly programs, including the ability to perform so that all can hear and enjoy. Equally important is learning to be a good listener, showing respect for and appreciation of the contribution of one's peers.

It is unfair to young people to deny them advantages afforded by school assemblies just because they present some difficulties for the teaching staff. As children grow in ability to assume responsibility the teacher's dread of assemblies is lessened if not completely overcome. Let's have regular assembly programs at all schools with the students as active participants. Such training will help them to develop the qualities of leader-

ship which the future will require of them.

20. THIS IS MINE

IN OUR DEEP CONCERN for helping Indian children prepare to face a complex and in many cases a confusing world, are we shortchanging them? Are we being so solicitous that they be prepared to earn a living by the emphasis placed upon academic and vocational skills that we are neglecting another important phase of their education—development of the natural creativeness of children who attend Bureau schools? Are we stifling their creativeness by not giving them the time and encouragement necessary to explore and develop avocational interests?

To try to get answers to these questions, we asked Bureau school personnel to tell us how they were fostering creativeness in their students; what opportunities their students have to gratify their innate desire to create. Approximately 75 percent of the schools have replied and, from these answers and the exhibits presented, it appears that Indian children in Bureau schools have many opportunities for self-expression. It is not the intention of this article to minimize the amount and range of information needed in this complex world of work, but to emphasize the need for people to develop avocational skills too.

What do we mean by creativeness? Creativity, in one sense, is achieved when a person uses the objects and materials around him to express his thoughts and feelings. The Indian woman of long ago who used the clay near her home to make a jar fulfilled an economic need, but at the same time she expressed her thoughts and feelings by molding graceful lines and drawing a beautiful design. Knowing that "this jar is my own creation" surely must have given her a feeling of pride and accomplishment. Today, her great granddaughter does not need a clay jar to bring water into her home, but

she may create a jar fully as beautiful to decorate the table in the school dormitory or in her own home.

Who is the creative child in our schools? He is every child, in every classroom, and in every dormitory. Each one is different and needs many opportunities to experiment freely with different media of self-expression. Children and youth need to draw, paint, carve, and weave; they need to sing and dance; they need to express ideas and emotions through writing and dramatizing stories, poems, and plays, and through pantomime and impersonation.

There is in our office an interesting landscape painted by a second-grade child. The painter was not hampered by reality, for, with his imagination, he created a bright, warm picture by making the background a yellow sea. One would suspect by looking at this painting that he felt good toward his world the day he "made his picture." The girl who cross-stitched a traditional Indian design on the draperies for her dormitory room used her imagination in developing the design and in selecting the materials and colors. The boy who designed and made the very modernistic bookshelf for his dormitory used his artistic skill to create something which was entirely his own. The people who do these kinds of things experience not only a sense of fulfillment but the enjoyment of an absorbing hobby.

More than 25,000 Indian students lived in dormitories last year so that they could attend school. These students have exceptional opportunities—or they should have—for self-expression through creative activities. In each dormitory there should be many kinds of materials to stimulate the imagination. In a dormitory where the staff encourages the children to grow in creative ability there will be a place where they may work quietly on individual projects and a place where several may work, perhaps not quietly, on a joint project. There will be a place to store the unfinished projects until they are completed. Then there will be a

time and a place to display a completed article if the creator so desires. There will be time in the children's out-of-school schedule to permit those who want to work to do so. With the increase in dormitory staff within the last four years, there can now be more flexibility in the dormitory schedule. All of these criteria are important, but probably the most important of all to the children is the interested adult who gives encouragement and counsel. This is the guidance that is especially needed for the slow learners.

We do not want to forget that children can engage in any of these activities without really becoming creative or artistic. This happens where there is such a routine that individuality is forgotten and each person is occupied doing the same thing. It can happen when one is required to follow set directions in making an object or in expressing an idea. In either case, there is the lack of feeling that "this is something I did all by myself."

Why may we be shortchanging students if we do not encourage them to develop avocational interests? It is said that the activities which many of the national leaders use for relaxation stem from interests which had their beginnings in school. The sidewalk artists, the community players, the basement shop enthusiasts, and the backyard gardeners are but a few indications that the pressures under which we live and work today demand that the spirit be refreshed. It is not likely that the students now in school will live as adults in any less strenuous world, and it is probable that they will have greater tensions with which to cope. It is also possible that they will have more time which must be filled with satisfying avocational activities.

From the reports received from the schools, we know creativeness is being fostered in regular school programs and in summer programs. But, what can you do to see that each child has opportunities to

become interested in some kind of creative undertaking to develop his talents? Have you tried making an alphabetical list of materials used in creative activities? Have you and your fellow staff members listed the things that you enjoyed at the respective ages? Have you started a file of ideas for projects which you have gathered from many sources? Are the staff members interested to the point that they try new ventures in creativeness that might motivate students? All of these are open-end projects that can help the school staff grow in creativeness with their students.

21. IF A TEACHER YOU WOULD BE

THE article below is an address presented by Miss Martha Hall, Assistant Director of Schools, to the new teachers of the Gallup Area at the beginning of the 1961 orientation session. We want to share her message with you for we believe it is as applicable to the teaching of Indian children in your school as it is in the Gallup Area.

Time erases many things, but I hope that time will never be able to erase those pleasant memories of my first year in the Bureau of Indian Affairs. I sincerely hope that your first year's experience will be as satisfying and as interesting as mine. Remember, much of this will depend on you.

We are very proud of the Bureau of Indian Affairs and its accomplishments over the years and we welcome you to our group. We expect to help you in every way we can. In turn, we expect you to be proud of this organization, to be a contributing member, to uphold its high standards, and to be loyal to its objectives and to the Indian people.

This conference has been designed to help you become better acquainted with the Bureau of Indian Affairs and your new position, to present to you the philosophy of In-

dian education, to demonstrate this philosophy in action, and to supply you with a few techniques and materials to carry into your own classroom.

Understand the Philosophy of Indian Education

In order to fit into an organization and to make a contribution, one needs to know and to believe in the philosophy of that organization. So let us begin by taking a look at the philosophy of education of the organization of which you now are a part.

The task of education is to help provide opportunities for every child:

1. To develop and to maintain sound health in body and in mind
2. To maintain pride in his heritage and to have respect for that certain body of tradition his people value enough to preserve from generation to generation
3. To develop and to practice a code of moral ethics acceptable to himself and to the society in which he lives
4. To acquire such social skills as will contribute to the prudent use of leisure, to contentment, and to the ability to function effectively with others socially or at work
5. To learn the art of straight thinking—to recognize a problem when he meets one and to attack it in a manner to arrive at the most satisfactory solution possible
6. To develop a scientific, inquiring mind which will lead to continuous growth and learning
7. To develop to the limit of his intellectual and creative ability, the end result being a self-respecting, self-supporting, contributing citizen who can participate in the national life equally with his fellowman.

In summary, Bureau philosophy is to help develop each personality to its full stature and maturity, and to equip each Indian child with the abilities, skills, and understandings which will permit him to live harmoniously, productively, and happily in a changing democratic society.

As a teacher you need to develop a sym-

pathetic understanding of the philosophy of Indian education. You need to know how to turn this philosophy into educational procedures suited to the needs of your pupils and to the school in which you will work. When you leave this session, you will have had an opportunity to gain some insight into this philosophy. You will have taken the initial steps on the springboard from which you will launch your program for the coming year. If you become thoroughly familiar with this philosophy; if you really believe in it and sincerely work toward it, then you need have no fear of not succeeding.

Teach Every Child

Indian people have confidence in us. They have confidence in us to the extent that they place in our charge their most prized possessions, their children. We have a very serious obligation to these people when we accept a teaching position with the Bureau of Indian Affairs. We are obligated to do our very best to help the children we teach. They are looking to all of us, and every day we work with these children we are contributing to their future. Our real payoff does not come in money but in the satisfaction of a job well done, and in the satisfaction of knowing that we have not failed these children nor their parents who are depending on us.

There is much you can give every single pupil in your classroom:

1. You can teach him to think, to think for himself.
2. You can teach him to gather facts, to evaluate them and to make decisions, wise decisions for himself. You won't always be there to make decisions for him.
3. You can teach him to do well whatever he does. Do not accept less than his best; however, do not expect the impossible. You can give him something that is possible for him to do and to do well if he works at it. You can teach him to be satisfied with nothing less than his best.
4. You can teach him to be polite and thoughtful of other people.

5. You can teach him to be neat and clean.
6. You can help him to realize that he has no time to waste. Set the example yourself and you can be sure that he will follow.

Improve Your Program

Take your pupils where you find them, lay a firm foundation right there, then build on it just as far as you can. Take advantage of every day. You and your pupils can afford to waste no time.

My thoughts keep going back to my first year of teaching. May I pass on to you a few suggestions which were given to me as I entered the Bureau by a man who retired a number of years ago. These I have found to be sound throughout the years:

1. Evaluate? Yes, but be slow in expressing your critical judgments. There is usually a good reason for many things and often this reason is not visible on the surface.
2. Question? Surely, but go to the right source for accurate answers to your questions. This source is your immediate supervisor who will know the right answers or who will be in a position to get the accurate information for you.
3. Accept suggestions and criticism? Yes, you must expect and you will get suggestions and constructive criticism from those who are interested in your success.
4. Seek help in your work? By all means, ask for help in your work when it is needed. This is not a mark of weakness, but a sign of intelligence.

You are college graduates; you are trained teachers. Indian children have a right to expect much from you and I am confident that you as educational workers, are prepared to bring much to them. They are looking forward to your coming.

Grow in Wisdom

There are many desirable characteristics which educational workers need and some desirable habits they ought to develop if they do not already have them. Twenty-two years ago the Director of Education wrote a letter to a new trainee entering the Bureau

in which he listed some of the desirable characteristics that an educational worker needs and some of the desirable habits he should develop if he doesn't have them. These are just as sound today as they were 22 years ago. So, I have borrowed a few of them to give to you. They are not new. I am sure you are very familiar with them; however, it is good to review them, to keep them in mind:

1. Like children but do not humor or spoil them; don't just think they are cute. Really enjoy being with them for work and play.
2. Try to be liked by children. You can tell whether children really like you or whether they tolerate you because you are in a position of authority.
3. Be interested in the adults. They are the parents of the children with whom you work. What affects them must affect their children. They have great wisdom about their people and about the needs of the community. Their wisdom can serve the school if you, as the teacher, are interested in having it do so.
4. Cooperate pleasantly. People who pull in the same direction are apt to go places. Those who work alone, or who deliberately pull in the opposite direction, are apt to remain where they are.
5. Use sound judgment. It is necessary in your work. It can be improved by watching those who have it, by trying out one's own ideas and evaluating critically the outcomes.
6. Appreciate the value of keeping and of improving health for yourself, for the children, and for the community in general. Understand the value of preventive measures.
7. Let us remember that to be a leader in the classroom is an excellent aim for a teacher; to be a boss in the classroom is a fatal attitude.
8. Encourage free talk among the children; that is, provide many opportunities for children to express their own thoughts.

English is a "foreign language" for most Indian children in our schools, and they need an unusually large number of opportunities to speak the new language. A teacher does not prohibit the use of the native language but he needs to think of every possible means of making children want to talk English.

9. Use textbooks, but not in such a way that every boy and every girl studies the same pages in the same book and recites on these pages. Many different text books should be in use, with each boy and girl studying the things which he or she most needs. There are many books which the children will use as reference books for the various kinds of information which they are sure to need, if the teacher is stimulating their real interests.
10. Provide for individual children. This is a real necessity and cannot be overemphasized. Such provision means flexible classroom procedures. It means that not all children will be engaged in the same classroom duties at one time; it means being honest with each child when you give him advice; it means that you have studied each child and that you know what he really needs; it means that you understand the child's problems.
11. Look for the vital interests of children. You need to find out what those interests are. This means that you should know the conditions under which the children live. All children are interested in things which surround them every day, everywhere—things which we adults take for granted—things like rain and sunshine, the earth, growing things, insects, animals, the sky and the stars, the wind, the pimple on Johnnie's neck, how to make things, their own bodies, and day and night. A teacher needs to learn how to bring such interests together into a classroom program.
12. Keep growing professionally. Develop the habit now of feeling responsible for

growing professionally, if you expect to be in the front ranks of Bureau employees. Such growth can be promoted by attending workshops, summer schools, by taking extension courses, by reading recommended books, by trying new methods of teaching, by keeping posted on the policies of the Bureau of Indian Affairs, and by becoming familiar with the best educational procedures in Indian schools and elsewhere.

One way of indicating that you are progressing is to show a willingness to try new things; a willingness to face curriculum reorganization whenever such changes are indicated as desirable in view of the needs of Indians. A refusal to think that the present way of doing things is necessarily the best and final way of doing them and a sincere desire to find other and better ways of doing them are the true marks of teacher progress and growth.

Now a word about the staff. It is composed of classroom teachers, principals, principal-teachers, and education specialists. I wonder how many years of Bureau experience are represented in this group. It probably amounts to many, many years. These employees who are here to help you would not have accepted this added responsibility if they had not had a very deep and a very real interest in improving the service which Indian education can render to Indian people. All they ask in return is that, as time goes on, you likewise share with others your knowledge and experience and that you work as loyal, contributing members of the Bureau of Indian Affairs.

At this point I am reminded of one of my first Indian pupils. It became necessary for young Chester to be sent to a hospital for an extended period of time. He was quite a talented artist, so I sent him a box of art supplies which I thought might help him to pass the time. Within a few days I received a thank-you note which read something like this: "Thank you for the paints, the brushes, the crayons, the rulers, the erasers, the nice

paper, and all the other things you are going to send me."

So, like Chester, I'd like to say to this staff: Thank you for all the hard work you have done in getting ready for this orientation session and for all the hard work you are going to do during the next two weeks. And to you new teachers: I wish each of you many happy, successful years in the Bureau of Indian Affairs.

22. LET'S TAKE INVENTORY

AT THE CLOSE OF THE YEAR the merchant takes an inventory of his business. And with the information from this inventory, he is ready to evaluate his operation and make plans for the future. This inventory shows what goods are in stock, reveals those which have moved rapidly, and those which have been slow moving. It is a true picture of his business.

By studying this picture the merchant decides to discard this line of goods because it has not been a salable product; he will expand this department because there has been a steady increase in sales during the year. As a business man, he learns to conduct his business in a more successful manner by studying his records.

Teaching a group of children is a business—a very important business—producing the world's most valuable product, and the teacher is the manager. Like the business man, the teacher must take inventory, too; he must measure the progress of his operation if he expects to make improvements in his business.

At the end of the school year the teacher spreads his records before him and he studies them to get a better picture of what happened in his classroom during the year. There are the daily plans with his penciled evaluations of what happened as they were carried out. He reads the record of which

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parts were successful and which were "slow moving" and should be changed. There are the anecdotal records which indicate what happened to the individuals as they were guided by him. There are the cumulative records that can be used to review again the progress made over a long period of time and to compare it with what was made within the last year. Achievement test results are ready for study and on his desk also are curriculum guides, both of which will be used in taking stock of the business.

With these records in front of him, the teacher is ready to take inventory; he is ready to add up his gains for the year. He is prepared to discard the items of his business which in his estimation did not produce growth in the business, and to add new lines of merchandise.

In reviewing his plans and penciled notations of the science unit on electricity, the teacher is assured the children have learned many facts about the subject. The experiments were successful and should be kept as part of the salable stock. But to improve the unit for another time and for another group, he must capitalize on the children's interest in electricity to teach more English. Perhaps a science fair should be added to the unit. Explaining the entries to visitors and writing articles about them for school newspaper should provide motivation for the use of meaningful English. At least, the idea is worth including in plans for next year.

Also a review of the social studies unit on community life verifies the evaluation made at the time it was taught.

Asking parents to come to school and help with the writing of the history of the village had been a wise investment. More use of parents' time, interest, and talents would enhance the value of the teaching program. That would be an operation he would extend to other fields of activity. Ways to involve more parents and other interested people of

the community in the education of the children would be sought next year.

As teachers, you have been evaluating your teaching program all during the year and making changes to meet the demands of the children. But an analysis of the year's work provides a perspective not possible in the day-to-day evaluation. The relationship of one part to another and to the total program emerges with greater clarity as you take this backward look.

The picture of last year's operation leads to the plans you will make for the work you will do during the summer as you prepare for next year. Making plans for books to be read, displays to be arranged, supplies and equipment to be secured, teaching materials to be developed, and broad outlines to be prepared should be made easier by the close study you have made.

At the end of the summer you pause to take another look backward. This time you weigh the value of the work done to improve your business. That new book on speech education which was read and discussed with other teachers has given you some new ideas. Teaching materials have been assembled which should save valuable time during the busy school year. Of special interest and help to you was the guidance workshop which you attended at the college. The summer has been a busy period, but one that should bring profits to the business.

When school opens in September may you look forward to a more successful operation because of the inventory taken at the end of the year. The "slow moving" items have been removed from your stock and improved plans have been incorporated into your business. You believe the children will be challenged to work with greater interest and enthusiasm. All in all, the outlook is bright for a profitable year for both you and the children.

7

TEACHING ENGLISH TO INDIAN STUDENTS

1. ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE

THE PURPOSE OF THIS ARTICLE is to stimulate critical thinking of present methods of teaching English.

In 1961 the enrollment of Indian children in Federal schools reached 41,729. Of this number 82.4 percent were children of full Indian blood, and only 3.3 percent were of less than one-half degree Indian blood. These statistics indicate the dimensions of the instructional problems facing teachers of Indian youth in Federal schools.

Most of these children, by far, come from homes where the Indian language is the only language spoken. Most of their homes fall in the lowest income brackets. Living standards are usually below average and social standards sometimes do not reflect the ideas of either culture. Many parents lack sufficient education either to give support and encouragement to their children's education or to enter competition. The children's preschool experiences are usually exceedingly limited.

The basic problem, then, of the school is to provide the necessary experiences to bridge the gap between the home and a modern world, and to teach Indian youth to think in the English language. In overcoming this disparity between the Indian background and the requirements of a modern world, there is danger of creating another gap of serious consequence—a social gap between adults and youth. The seriousness of this gap was discussed in the article "Challenges to Education." How to bring Indian youth abreast with a modern world at

the speed required to prepare them for living in that world and at the same time to preserve the essential ties between them and their families require serious thought and planning. We must be alert and we must examine our whole program in the light of far-reaching social consequences. On the other hand, we cannot abdicate our responsibility. Indian youth must be prepared for living in this modern world. How to prepare them and at the same time avoid the pitfalls inherent in rapid change; how to prepare them and at the same time preserve the harmony between the generations is our task and challenge. Let us give it thought.

This discussion deals with the language problem. Since most Indian children in Federal schools come from homes where their native Indian tongue is the only language spoken, they must learn English at school. English then becomes for them a second language. Unless they learn to think in this second language, their limited use of English will be a handicap to their success. Learning English will be a lifelong process for them. Learning to speak English is a major objective of the elementary grades, but the teaching of English speech cannot stop at the elementary level. Emphasis on English speech is required at the high school level. Effective teaching of English as a second language at the high school level must digress in many of its aspects from the English taught to high school youth who speak English as a first language. Indian college youth must also expand their knowledge of English because a high school English tool will not serve the needs at the college level.

Attention, therefore, must be given at all

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levels to the special English needs of Indian youth, and teachers at all levels must understand that English for these youth is a second language often reflecting an entirely different pattern from that of the native language. A sequential development of English as a second language should be planned to assure mastery at higher and higher levels. English teaching cannot be left to chance at any level.

Language is a medium for communication. It is the road over which ideas and thoughts travel back and forth from mind to mind. The desire to communicate with others provides the strongest motives for learning a second language. An individual who finds himself in a situation where he must use a second language to make his needs known is, by force of circumstances, compelled to learn the new language at least to the point where he can communicate. In such circumstances, he tends to learn a new language more rapidly than the individual who can fall back on a third party to interpret his needs for him. For example, an Indian child living in an English-speaking home, completely cut off from his own people and language, cannot make his ideas known except through the English language of the home. He cannot retreat into his native tongue. His ears are bombarded constantly with English speech, and he tends to learn English more rapidly when he must depend solely on it for communication. Shut off completely from his native language he will learn English faster and, most likely, will forget his Indian tongue.

Although he will learn English more rapidly, he will meet with inherent social dangers in this situation which require alertness and insight if they are to be avoided. This process often slams the door tightly shut to the individual's Indian heritage and sets him adrift before he has found security elsewhere.

The lack of free access back and forth between cultures sometimes produces per-

sonalities that cannot be themselves, personalities which are forever trying to go back through closed doors to regain something they feel they have lost.

Prior to the time of the Meriam Report in 1928, Indian schools attempted to close the doors permanently to the Indian culture. Indian school children were not permitted to speak their Indian language on the premise that this would speed the learning of English. The attempt was to substitute English for the native tongue, to make the pupils monolingual in English. This, in effect, slowed down intellectual development by blocking the development of the pupils' mental powers through use of their native language while at the same time slowing their mental growth to the pace at which they could learn to think and communicate in English. Many found themselves in adulthood unable to think as adults in their native language, and at the same time unable to think at the adult level in English.

We dare not repeat these errors of the past. We must keep the language doors open to Indian thought, and at the same time we must find ways to teach Indian youth to think in English. We must aim at proficiency in both languages. Minds that can be developed and enriched with ideas flowing through the languages of two cultures have more opportunities to grow in breadth as well as depth than the minds that depend on one culture, especially if that culture is not their own. Based on this premise, effective English teaching in our schools will keep the doors between the cultures open wide and will encourage free passage and transport of ideas and values between the two.

This places greater responsibility on teachers. Without shutting off access and use of the Indian language, they must develop situations that motivate Indian youth to use English. Teachers must inspire and encourage Indian youth to develop ability to think in English on a par with their ability to think in their native language. The objec-

tive is to make pupils truly bilingual rather than monolingual in English. This requires of the teacher understanding of the Indian culture, understanding of the thought process, understanding of the language process, understanding of the essential differences in speech pattern between the native and second language, and understanding of how to teach a second language.

The teaching of English as a second language requires more than the teaching of words; it requires more than drills on sounds and sentence structure; it requires more than elimination of accent; it requires more than the ability to repeat an oration in English. What more do you think effective English teaching requires of you to teach the children in your classes?

2. UNDERSTANDINGS REQUIRED IN TEACHING OF ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE

IF YOU ACCEPTED the challenge of the article "English As a Second Language," you have by this time critically examined your teaching methods and formulated for yourselves some ideas as to what effective English teaching requires of you. Perhaps you agreed, in part if not completely, with what was developed in the first article. The important thing is that you take a position and start testing your position. Several teachers at Shiprock, New Mexico, are doing just that; a later article will give an account of their experimentation and the results they hope to achieve. The important thing is that they are taking a position regarding English teaching and they are experimenting and testing. They believe in what they are doing; therefore, their testing will be thorough. They are openminded; therefore, their procedures will be modified on the basis of tested evidence. In the meantime the children are catching their enthusiasm.

The teachers at Seba Dalkai, Arizona

have, over a long period of time, developed methods for teaching English which also have been highly successful. The children who leave the Seba Dalkai School after two or three years speak English well for children of their age and grade achievement. The Seba Dalkai teachers, like the Shiprock teachers, believe in what they are doing; they are openminded, and they, too, modify their procedures in terms of new ideas and tested evidence in the field of language teaching. The children they teach have caught the enthusiasm of their teachers and have responded well.

These two examples represent effective English teaching at the 6- to 9-year-old levels. Some of the work at the Albuquerque Indian School can be cited as examples of effective methods with teenage beginners, an age where the English-teaching problem is more complicated. At this level the Language Master, tape recorders, and other teaching aids and machines have been used to supplement the basic work of the teachers. But, here again, even with the use of modern teaching devices and aids, the best results are obtained in classrooms where teacher enthusiasm stimulates and motivates the pupils in the learning of English.

Many more than these examples might have been chosen. These three have not been singled out because the teachers have achieved perfection because alert, enthusiastic teachers are never completely satisfied. They are always looking for better ways to teach. These examples are cited to emphasize the importance of teacher enthusiasm and its relationship to pupil motivation in learning English. Pupil enthusiasm and motivation are basic ingredients in the learning of English as a second language. Without these ingredients, the success of any method or approach will suffer. The teacher is the key motivator in any classroom situation.

Granted that teacher enthusiasm and belief in what he is doing are basic ingredients to the effectiveness of any method used,

what other ingredients must be added to obtain optimum effectiveness in teaching English as a second language?

There are certain essential understandings that every teacher of English as a second language should have to develop successful methods and approaches. It goes without saying that the teacher must have an understanding of the children being taught. Not only should the teacher have the ordinary understanding of the growing-up process from childhood to adulthood, but he should also have an understanding of the culture of the children he teaches. Since you are teaching Indian children, you need to know a great deal about their home life, their customs, and their value system. This requires at least a working knowledge of anthropology. Do you have it?

You should have an understanding of the learning process. This requires a working knowledge of psychology. Do you have it?

You should have an understanding of the relationship of emotional development to learning. This requires a working knowledge of sociology. Do you have it?

You should have an understanding of the process involved in learning a language. This requires a working knowledge of linguistics. Do you have it?

You should have a deep understanding of the age groups you teach and the methods required to teach them. This requires an understanding of methodology as well as psychology. Do you have it?

These requirements cut across several disciplines. Your teacher-training courses prepared you with a working knowledge of some of these disciplines but not all, no doubt. For example, you may have majored in anthropology, but if you lack the understanding required in your work that comes from linguistics and psychology and methodology and sociology your success as a teacher will be limited until such time as you acquire the understanding of the other disciplines.

Fortunately, Bureau teachers have oppor-

tunities through inservice training and through the use of educational leave to develop a working knowledge of other disciplines and thus broaden their base of understanding. Are you taking full advantage of these opportunities?

In addition to the above required understandings, there is one more essential understanding that every teacher in the Bureau should have and that is understanding of the difference between teaching English as a second language to those who have already achieved literacy in another language prior to attempting English and the teaching of English to Indian children who must achieve literacy through the medium of English, their new and second language. There is a difference. And this difference is related, in no small way, to the methods and approaches used in teaching English as a second language to Indian children. The next issue will deal with this difference.

3. THERE IS A DIFFERENCE

THIS IS THE THIRD in a series of articles on the teaching of English as a second language. The purpose of these discussions is to give food for thought to those of you who struggle daily with the problems of teaching English to Indian children and youth. It is hoped that these discussions, in stimulating your thinking about your daily teaching problems, will encourage you to try new ideas and incorporate those that work in your teaching methods.

The preceding article discussed some basic understandings required of you, a teacher of English as a second language. That discussion ended with a promise that this issue would deal with the difference between teaching English as a second language to those who are literate in another language prior to attempting English and the teaching of English to Indian pupils who usually are required to achieve initial liter-

acy in English, their second language. There is a difference.

Before we discuss that difference, let us understand and agree upon the purpose of language—any language. Language is the servant of the mind. It is a system of symbols used to communicate ideas and thoughts. Language fetches and carries thoughts and ideas back and forth from mind to mind. The exchange of ideas through the avenue of language affords each mind an opportunity to grow. This process of growth is more than merely adding new ideas, although that is a part of it. There is an added dimension to intellectual growth that comes from reacting to ideas. New ideas are received, related to other ideas in the mental storehouse, examined in terms of past ideas and concepts, and accepted or rejected or modified and integrated as a part of the mental background. This process of reaction and interaction we call thinking. Thinking, then, is more than taking in and giving out. Power to think rests heavily on ability to react to ideas, both our own and those acquired from other sources.

Language is the tool for thinking. In the absence of thinking, there would be no need for the tool. Therefore, the basic step in developing proficiency in a language, whether first or second, is to teach pupils to think. It follows that teachers should provide situations that give pupils something to think about. The type of situations used to stimulate thinking will vary of course, in terms of the age and maturity level of the learner. However, there will be no effective teaching of language at any level, elementary, high school, or college, unless there is a stimulating and inquiring classroom atmosphere where thinking is taking place. Ability to think and ability to handle language go hand and hand, but thinking is the heart of language.

Suppose we examine the relationship of ideas and language as that affinity develops from the beginning. An infant reacting to his crib environment learns to recognize

the person or persons who care for him. With much prompting he learns to imitate a few of the sound symbols they teach him, and by and by he learns that a certain symbol such as "mama" gets a desired result. This learning is stored up for future use.

As he toddles and crawls, his environment expands to include many interesting objects and events. These give him many more opportunities for reaction and he takes full advantage of them. He personally explores everything on which he can get his hands. He handles and tastes everything within his reach. Aided by his five senses he interacts with his environment. The concepts which are the residue of these firsthand experiences are stored away in his mental storehouse and used to react to future situations. For example, he touches a hot stove, or tastes something bitter. He soon learns to avoid the stove, and he rejects the bitter tasting object or anything that resembles it.

What about his language development during this stage? With the prompting of members of his family, he learns to label the ideas he is gaining from his personal interaction with his environment. Family members teach him through much repetition to make the proper associations and to call up the correct labels. At this stage there is much questioning of the child by his elders, such as "What is that?" He responds "dog" or "cat," etc., or he may himself call attention to what he observes such as "See, dog." His language grows as his experiences broaden.

From two to five his horizons expand still further to include others in addition to his immediate family, usually playmates near his own age. His reactions to his environment also increase. The reaction may be a physical struggle over a toy or a flat statement, "My mother says so and so about your mother." Nevertheless, the residue of such reactions are stored away in his brain cells. During this period his mastery of language increases by great strides. The questioning at this stage now shifts. The child takes

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over from elders as the questioner, sometimes to the complete exhaustion of those who are called upon to answer his questions. He constantly asks why, who, what, when, where, how. His language is becoming a more powerful tool in the exploration of his environment and he enjoys using it. Some of the most unusual and poetic expressions come from children at this age. They are completely uninhibited in experimenting with words and ideas, and they are ever on the quest for new ideas. A 3-year-old seeing a quarter moon asked his mother, "How did that piece of broken sun get in the sky?" Was he not examining something new to him in his environment and reacting in terms of his past concepts and ideas?

Through experimentation and through imitation of others, he is learning to express with more fluency the ideas he is gaining and to express them in their proper relationship to each other in accordance with the thought patterns of his language. As his stock of experiences enlarges, his mental storehouse of ideas increases and his language expands. This development is illustrated by the dialogue between a father and a 5-year-old son who sat across the table from me in a diner on a transcontinental train. The train stopped with a few jerks.

Son: "Who stopped the train?"

Father: "The brakeman."

Son: "How did he stop it?"

Father: "He stopped it with the brakes."

Son: "What kind of brakes?"

Father: "Air brakes."

Son: "Now, Dad, you know you can't stop a train with air."

I came to the father's rescue by commenting: "That's a very observing son you have," and the conversation changed.

This incident, illustrates the curiosity of a 5-year-old concerning his environment, his critical reaction to ideas, and his use of language.

At six or thereabout in our culture the child's environment is enlarged to include the school. He takes with him to school all of

the mental baggage he has accumulated during his six years of living as well as all of the language power he has developed during that same period. By this time he has accumulated an oral language vocabulary of a few thousand words. He has learned to express his ideas in proper relationship, according to the thought patterns of his language, including thought patterns that are rather intricate and complex. By modeling his speech after those around him and through constant use, these patterns have become automatic for him.

At school, in addition to oral language, he adds new dimensions to his skills. He learns to read and write his language. By the end of the fifth or sixth grade, usually he has achieved sufficient skills with written language to be termed functionally literate. Having achieved this level of literacy, he now has the means to supplement rapidly his intellectual background and achieve higher and higher levels of literacy as he progresses through his formal school career. The wisdom of the world, past and present, is open to him through the medium of a written language. His learning becomes increasingly more abstract and likewise his thinking.

This entire process, beginning at the crib in the home and continuing through all of his school career, has been aimed at one primary objective: to induct him into his culture and make him a functional member of that culture.

Suppose the process we have just described referred to a German or French or an African child and suppose further at some point in this process—the sixth grade, high school, or even at a beginning elementary grade—it is decided to teach him English as a second language. Will the purpose in teaching this second language be to induct him into the culture of the society that speaks the second language? Hardly. Few people study Japanese to live the Japanese way of life; or Russian to become Russian; or Tagalog to become Filipino. Nationals of

other countries usually do not study English to become Americans. The purpose is to give the learner an appreciation of a culture different from his own, to give an understanding of its people, and to give him command of the language system to permit cross-cultural communication of ideas.

The second language, like a bridge, becomes a link between two culturally diverse backgrounds and permits communication from one to the other at whatever point the bridge is built. If the language is taught in the primary grades, it gives an opportunity to exchange experiences on childlike levels. If it is taught at higher levels—high school or college or adult—it affords an opportunity to cross cultures at those levels.

In this setting, the primary purpose of learning the second language is to permit individuals, each literate in his own language, to communicate.

Indians seek an education and want to learn English to the end that they may take their places in the mainstream of American life. They are not seeking merely a communication bridge. They are learning a new way of life; therefore, English for them must be more than a narrow bridge spanning two cultures. It must be a whole transportation system that will open up for them the recorded wisdom of the ages. That is the difference—a difference in purpose for learning English as a second language.

And what bearing does this difference in purpose have on the way you teach English as a second language to your Indian pupils? Will you ponder this question until the next issue?

4. TEACHING ENGLISH IS HARD WORK

IN THE THREE PREVIOUS ARTICLES, we have been dealing with the teaching of English as a second language. These discussions have attempted to develop understanding of some of the basic principles in teach-

ing English to Indian children and youth. There has been no attempt to dictate or advocate a particular method. Instead, the purpose has been to outline the components necessary to effective English teaching, regardless of the methods or approaches used.

The teaching of English to Indian children is a slow process because, as was explained in earlier articles, the learning of English as a second language by Indian youth is closely allied to learning the ways of a second culture. Teaching English to Indian children, therefore, requires that teachers have a thorough understanding of children and the ways they learn, specific understanding of the Indian life of the children being taught, a deep understanding of the basic principles involved in learning a new language, and a broad understanding of the problems involved in cultural transition. In addition, teaching English to Indian children requires patient and hard work. Teachers who possess these general attributes will fashion for themselves effective methods. With this background they can then investigate and use new information properly and fit whatever they find into its proper place to improve their teaching. Although they know there is no short cut or easy way that will get quick and lasting results, good teachers never cease in their efforts to improve, and to seek and use new information to help improve their teaching of English.

Effective English teaching is like the effective functioning of a good watch. Both are made up of vital parts. Each part must be good, and each part must function properly in relationship to all other parts. A broken mainspring stops a watch, but the watch will not run if it has only a good mainspring. A cheap and defective watch can be disguised for awhile by enclosing it in a gold case. Those who know little about watches can be fooled briefly by the looks of the case, but the case is not vital to the functioning of the watch. Sooner or later any defectiveness of the watch shows up in its

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performance. Sensible people do not buy a watch solely on the looks or the merits of the case. Neither do they buy a watch solely on the reputation of a single part, the mainspring for example, because the total watch complex depends on the strength of all of its vital parts working together.

The same is true of English teaching. Weak teaching may be disguised for awhile in the gold case of showy performance; but if some of the vital parts are missing in that teaching the defects will eventually show up in poor results. Teachers who try to get along with a good job in one or two parts of the process to the neglect of the other parts are trying to get a good timepiece with only a mainspring and a stem, and that is impossible. A good watch is not cheap because all of the vital and delicate parts must be good. Good English teaching is not easy because careful attention must be given to the running order of all essential components of the total English-learning process.

And, what are the vital parts to the process of teaching English as a second language to Indian youth?

First, the process must provide for intellectual growth—acquiring new ideas.

Second, the process must assure linkage between the English symbols taught and the concepts or ideas they represent; otherwise, spoken English will become an exercise in prattle.

Third, the ear must be trained to hear and to distinguish the likenesses and differences in the sounds of the English language; otherwise, English becomes a blur of sounds that are meaningless. Attuning the ear to the sounds of English is especially important in the beginning and requires extensive exposure to oral English to the point where the individual hears the differences between correct English speech and the English he produces.

Fourth, the speech muscles must be trained to produce English speech. This requires intensive practice to the point where the individual approaches the patterns of

English speech he is imitating. This involves learning English thought patterns, inflection, intonation, etc. in what he expresses.

Fifth, English vocabulary must be acquired in keeping with intellectual growth.

Sixth, English must be used as a tool of thought to acquire new ideas and to express ideas.

All of the laws of learning apply to the process of teaching English as apply to all learning processes: new learning must be built on the known; there must be sufficient repetition to fix learning; and attention must be given to interest, motivation, and individual differences. Each of these components is a part of the whole; it does not function alone, it functions in relationship to the others.

There is a great deal of drill involved in the total overall process, but using the watch analogy, drill alone will not produce good results. Neither will omitting nor neglecting necessary drill produce adequate results.

Let each teacher of Indian children now examine his English-teaching conscience. You are one of the most important models for your pupils. They will learn to imitate your speech. Does your speech produce a good English model? You are largely responsible for providing your pupils with the experiences that will expand their background of ideas. In other words, are you giving your pupils something to think about, and are you teaching them to think? Does your classroom work show that you thoroughly understand this relationship of ideas to English teaching?

You are the person most responsible for attuning the ears of your pupils to English sounds, for showing them how to produce English sounds correctly, for encouraging them to experiment with expressing their ideas in thought patterns appropriate to English. This requires ingenuity to bring variety into the tedious practice required.

You are the person responsible for the continued growth of each pupil in your class.

This requires that you measure out your teaching content in increments, adjusted to the learning power of each child. How much does your English teaching reflect your awareness of the principle of individual differences?

Do you really appreciate how tired the ears, the speech muscles, and the mind grow when they are constantly bombarded with the sounds of a second language? This is especially true for little children. What do you do to vary your teaching to bring relief and relaxation from this constant bombardment and still not waste the time of children?

Can you explain to your own satisfaction the similarities and differences in teaching English to Indians of different age groups, and the differences in purpose involved in teaching English as a second language to foreign students and to Indians?

If you know the answers to these questions, you have a good understanding of the basic components of the total English-teaching process. If you put these understandings to work effectively in your classroom, you are a good teacher of English. Every good teacher of English searches diligently for new knowledge that will be helpful in becoming a better teacher.

5. A SECOND FACET OF TEACHING ENGLISH

IN THE FOUR PRECEDING ARTICLES, we have discussed the teaching of English as a second language. These articles have dealt primarily with the problems related to teaching pupils to speak the language fluently. The teacher of a second language should keep foremost in his mind the purpose of language; namely, to communicate ideas. Therefore, the teacher's aim in language teaching is to develop facility in the expression of ideas.

Now we come to another facet of learning English—learning to read English. Read-

ing is not merely reading words, although one cannot read without the use of words. One reads ideas. Words in combination with other words carry the ideas from the printed page to the mind of the reader. The mind of the reader accepts the idea, rejects the idea, or modifies the idea and then it becomes a part of his mental background to be used in reacting to other ideas. In other words, the mind codifies the idea and stores it for future reference in juxtaposition with other ideas already in the mind. Unless this interaction between mind and printed page takes place, there is no actual reading—according to my definition of reading—even through every word is seen or pronounced.

The process described above is what reading authorities define as thoughtful and critical reading. And pupils at all levels should be taught to read thoughtfully and critically. Reading should become for each of them a way of expanding his storehouse of ideas.

Pupils must be taught the mechanics of reading, but mechanics should be thought of as the tools for extracting the ideas from the printed page. Therefore, the tool is subordinate to the idea, and is needed solely because of the idea.

Since the mind takes in ideas through words, pupils must become proficient in dealing with words. This means they must be able to recognize words on the printed page to get at the ideas behind words. This calls for word attack skills and every good teacher of reading knows that there are at least five ways of attacking unfamiliar written words. The effective teacher familiarizes his pupils with all methods which make them more independent in their ability to recognize new words. Some pupils will be able to use one method to better advantage than others and will, therefore, perfect word recognition skills through that method. For example, a deaf child will not use the same method of word recognition as a child with normal hearing, yet a deaf child can learn

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to read fluently. Most children can be taught, however, to use more than one method. Developing and perfecting word attack skills require practice at all levels—in other words, drill.

The expanding of vocabulary is a life-long process and vocabulary development is required at every grade level. However, it must be remembered that word attack and vocabulary drill in themselves will not produce critical readers.

Pupils must also be taught from the very beginning to search for the ideas conveyed by the words. This means that they must be taught sentence patterns and clues for getting ideas. Elementary teachers spend a great deal of time teaching pupils to recognize the different kinds of sentences, and to understand the many different patterns of word relationships to express ideas. Analyzing sentences for the thoughts and ideas they express should be an important phase of all reading instruction at all levels. In fact, it should be an important part of all teaching. This type of analysis affords an excellent opportunity for oral discussion as well as reading.

Pupils at all levels should be taught how sentences are put together to express units of thought. This instruction will develop the pupils' ability to determine the organizational structure of the material read; namely, how the author supports his main topic with subordinate ideas. Unless pupils are taught how to tear apart and put back together again the author's ideas, they will be seriously handicapped in their ability to study. No doubt, the lack of study skills contributes, to a large measure, to the high dropouts in high school and college. Study skills are important in all school work, especially at the high school and college levels.

Pupils must also be taught to adjust their reading to the type of material they read. A novel can and should be read in an entirely different way than a history book or a legal document. Some reading material can be

read hastily to get the main theme; some reading material must be read with precision and care; some reading material can be scanned; and some reading material can be comprehended by following the author's pattern of organization of main topics. A pupil should be taught to choose the method best suited to his purpose in reading the material. If one should read everything as he reads a legal document or a history lesson, he would not be able to read all that is required of readers in this 20th-century living. On the other hand, if he cannot read with accurate comprehension a legal document, a contract, or an insurance policy he will be handicapped in meeting the reading requirements of everyday adult life.

Effective instruction in reading has special importance in the education of Indian children who must handle English as a second language. Teachers of all subject fields should understand the importance of reading proficiency in the educational advancement of Indian youth. For too many years teachers were led to believe that children learned to read in the elementary grades, and read to learn thereafter. Consequently, little attention was given to reading in the high school. Nothing could have been more untrue. The high school student who receives no reading instruction will be forced to use elementary reading tools to do high school work unless he develops these higher skills on his own without the benefit of teachers.

Every high school teacher should teach the vocabulary of his subject field, and the particular kind of reading skills necessary to glean ideas from books in that area. He should be a teacher of ideas, and he should challenge the students to deal with ideas by every method he can command. This approach to high school subject matter would provoke interesting discussion and certainly bring much needed life to high school instruction.

If you visited a primary classroom where pupils were droning by turns through a read-

ing assignment, with little or no comment about the reading material, would the teacher be teaching the pupils to read critically or would he merely be helping them to pronounce words? Would this be reading by the definition of reading given in this discussion? Yet, how many primary reading lessons, unfortunately, are still conducted in this way.

If you observed an elementary class where all the pupils were reading silently and the teacher was sitting at his desk waiting for them to finish, would you consider this efficient reading instruction?

If you visited a high school classroom where the teacher did practically all of the talking, would you consider this effective teaching in the handling of ideas? Yet how many high school classes are taught in this manner.

For more than three years we have given special emphasis to the teaching of reading in Bureau schools. The progress that has been made should challenge us to still greater effort, and especially since reading ability is importantly related to the educational advancement of Indian youth.

6. EVERYONE A TEACHER OF INDIAN CHILDREN

THE TEACHING of English and reading has been the subject of our most recent articles in this periodical. Since these discussions were pointed primarily toward classroom methods and techniques, readers may have been left with the impression that classroom teachers have the sole responsibility for giving Indian children a good command of English. Although the classroom teacher carries the full responsibility for making every minute of classroom time count to the fullest, it must be recognized that pupils are not in the classroom their total waking hours. The waking hours outside the classroom exceed their classroom hours. What happens during the out-of-class

hours is also importantly related to the teaching-learning process. Therefore, the home and the community, as well as the school, carry responsibility for the education of youth.

Children Learn in Home and Community

The teacher in the classroom, no matter how competent, works under great handicaps unless his efforts are strengthened and extended by home and community experiences. The average non-Indian child gets a great deal of educational help from both his home and his community. Most non-Indian children have been acquainted with books since they handled their first picture books as growing infants. They have gained from their parents a notion of the importance of education and why they must apply themselves to educational tasks. They have shared experiences that are educational with other members of their families. Most of them have attended community functions of one type or another; visited libraries and museums; gone to circuses and zoos; attended movies; ridden on buses, trains, and airplanes; and visited communities or cities other than their own.

These out-of-school experiences are educational in that they, first, contribute to each child's storehouse of ideas, and second, give meaning to much of his classroom instruction. They both extend and strengthen the efforts of the teacher and the school.

How many of these educational experiences ordinarily provided by a modern home or a modern community do Indian children have? Some Indian children have the educational advantages that come from living in a modern community. They have traveled; they have been to zoos and libraries and museums. They have the advantages of books and radios and televisions in their homes. Their parents instill in them the importance of applying themselves to their school tasks. Usually these are the children of Indian parents who have had a tradition of schooling for one, two, or three

generations. These Indian children do not have the same serious educational handicaps to overcome that many other Indian children have.

Let us look at the Indian children who do not have the advantages described above. Who are they and what are their handicaps? In the 1960-61 school year more than 41,000 Indian children were enrolled in Federal schools. All of these children were in Federal schools because of some particular needs that did not apply to other children. They lived in isolated communities or they did not speak English or they had no opportunities to go to school until they were 9, 10, or even 16 or 17 years of age; or they failed to adjust in regular school situations or their home situations were undesirable. Most of these Indian children spoke only their Indian tongue when they entered school.

If Indian children enter at six, they are already six years behind in spoken English by comparison with children who enter school at six speaking English. Most of these Indian children come from homes in the lowest income brackets. This means that the homes have been unable to furnish the standards of living that would provide experiences comparable to homes in middle-income brackets. Children from these economically impoverished homes have had little or no experiences that would extend or give meaning to the instruction of the school. Many of these children have not had books in their homes; they have never visited a zoo or a library or a museum. They have never ridden on a train or an airplane. They have never eaten in a modern restaurant nor have they seen the inside of a modern hotel. Because of the lack of education and due to financial inability, most of their parents, regardless of their desire to do so, cannot give to their children the educational support that the average home provides. Research has developed evidence that shows a high correlation between school success and home background.

The Role of Schools for Indian Children

For most of these children, the school must carry the full educational load. It must teach the English the children do not get at home.¹ It must provide most of the educational motivation. It must, through whatever means it can devise, make up for the lack of educational experiences ordinarily gained at home and in the community. And, in many cases, the school must also substitute for the home by providing special care and emotional support for children from broken and undesirable homes.

The question is: Can the school alone carry the triple responsibility of school, home, and community, and at the same time do the instructional task equally with other schools that enjoy the added strength provided by home and community? The answer is obvious.

Can the school refuse to fill the gap when home and community are unable, for various reasons, to carry their educational responsibility? Again, the answer is obvious. The school must do the best it can to fill the gap. At the same time it must cooperate to the fullest with other agencies in the interest of programs that will strengthen home and community life. Adult education programs, child welfare and social development programs, health programs, law and order programs, economic development programs, and road programs are types of activities that strengthen Indian homes and communities. As the results of these kinds of programs accrue, the school's responsibility for filling the gap for home and community will decrease.

Every Employee Has a Responsibility

In the meantime, the school must continue to carry, as best it can, a triple responsibility. It cannot carry this triple responsibility to the best of its ability unless every employee considers himself a teacher. Every employee teaches by example. By this definition, the janitors, the maintenance men, the bus drivers, the cooks, the

guards, the instructional aids, the clerks, and the administrators, as well as the teachers and counselors, are teachers. All employees are at a school for one purpose only. They are there to serve the children. Each is employed to contribute his share toward maintaining a school environment that will be educational, both in the physical standards of the plant and in the standards of its instruction. Well-kept grounds, a clean, well-maintained plant, an attractive classroom, a homelike dormitory, and a sanitary kitchen and dining room demonstrate standards of neatness, order, sanitation, and aesthetics that may provide the pupils with the only opportunity they will ever have to learn to appreciate such standards. Conversation with friendly employees and campus visitors may provide them with the major opportunities they will have outside their classroom to use the English they are learning. The entire staff, therefore, has a responsibility for the teaching of English. Teachers—all teachers, not just English teachers—have the responsibility to make every classroom hour count in developing a knowledge of English. All other employees have a responsibility to engage children in English conversation at every opportunity. In this way everyone at the school becomes a teacher of English.

7. INDIAN CHILDREN WILL TALK

THE comment often is made that Indian children will not talk; that they are shy and retiring and will not use the English they know. In some classrooms this is true; in others it is not. Some teachers work desperately to extract from little heads a word or two of English; other teachers seemingly have no difficulty in getting from children adequate responses in English. The children seem eager to use the English they are learning. Why this difference? May I take the reader on a visit with me to two different

classrooms and then ask him to draw his own conclusions?

As we enter the first classroom, we are greeted by a bright-eyed youngster who offers each of us a chair saying, "Please have a chair." We look around, and on first sight the teacher is not in view although there are approximately 30 children in the room occupied at various tasks. Two children are arranging the bulletin board; eight children are working with books at their seats and frequently conferring with one another; another group is huddled around an aquarium, first looking at its contents, and then paging through books, after which one child in the group, apparently the recorder, writes something on paper. We notice a simple science assignment on the chalkboard and we assume there is a relationship between the assignment and what these children are doing.

By this time we recognize the teacher conducting a reading-conversation lesson with another group, also on a science topic. The teacher is leading the discussion, but there is spontaneity on the part of the children. The subject matter is interesting to them because they all take part in the discussion without prompting. We, too, become interested not only in the responses of the children but also in the subject matter under discussion.

Soon a coy little girl with a Myrna Loy smile leaves her group, slips beside us and says, "May I show you some things?" which she proceeds to do. She leads us to an exhibit of pupils' work and explains why it is on display. She shows us the play corner and everything in it—sleeping dolls in beds and on cradleboards, a play kitchen, toy telephones, a child's rocking chair, cars, planes, balls, building blocks, puzzles—all things to delight the hearts of children, both boys and girls. From the evidence at hand it is easy to see that these play materials are put to good use to develop social understandings and habits as well as English conversation. Our child-guide talks about these materials in English sentences. We

learn later that the other children can converse about these and other classroom activities, also in sentences.

The library corner is next on our tour and we are told about the story hour, how much they enjoy the story hour, the books they have to read, who likes to read, how many books the class has read, etc. At this point the classroom mascot, a cocker spaniel, comes up for his share of attention from our guide. She pets him and we learn his name, how they acquired him, and how much fun he is to have in the classroom.

The chart which lists work responsibilities is explained. Each child has a share of responsibility in keeping the classroom neat and orderly. The chart lists the name of the boy who greeted us when we entered the room. Taking care of visitors this particular week is the responsibility of that boy and our girl-guide.

We then are shown the record player and records they have, told of other records they would like to get, the filmstrips they like, and how they use their picture file. Our guide points out a Hummel figurine and explains that the figurine belongs to the teacher; that she brought it for all to see how pretty it is. She also explains, "We don't touch, we look at it, it might break, it costs lots of money."

We had just begun to look at the art work when our guide advises that it is "tell" time.

Without our being aware of it, the entire class has assembled into one group and with the teacher is waiting for us to come to attention. The teacher says, "Mary, will you introduce our guests?" After asking us our names, our guide does so.

A lively discussion follows and we then learn that the topic under study is snails. A great deal of information is assembled on the chalkboard with the teacher as the recorder. One boy says, "Some people eat snails." There is laughter. The teacher asks where he found that information. He proudly produces a book to verify his statement. The teacher asks, "Has anyone in the class

eaten snails?" There is a chorus, "No." By this time I feel as though I belong to the class so I timidly venture, "Yes." They look at me with surprise and with some resemblance to disgust expressed in their "You have!" I am not quite sure but that the teacher shares their feelings, but she says, "Would you tell us about the snails that people eat?" I tell them how the French people cook snails and I carefully explain that the snails that are eaten are not at all like the snails in their aquarium. I tell them how much courage it took for me to try the first one but how delicious it was. The teacher records "delicious" on the chalkboard for later vocabulary building and sentence drill, no doubt. I also tell them about a certain kind of breadroll called a snail and again the teacher writes "kinds of snails" on the chalkboard. That too, I am sure, will provide a topic for further discussion. Never before have I had such an interested inquiring audience, although I doubt if any new snail eaters will result from this conversation.

This is a most interesting group of children. They are eager to learn, well behaved, and responsive. The teacher appears to work with ease. Instruction seems to be incidental, but I wonder how much planning and how much organization goes into each day's work to make learning sequential—another step toward the next day's instruction.

Now, let us go to the second classroom. As we enter everything stops. The teacher tells the children to get out their arithmetic books and do the problems on page 10. All get out books from their desks. Save for the few books on the teacher's desk these are the only books in sight.

The teacher comes to the back of the room and carries on a conversation with us until a hand goes up. She then goes to the child's desk, looks at his work, and says something to him in an undertone we cannot hear. After this she goes from desk to desk pointing out an error here and another there. Very little English is spoken, and most of that is by the teacher.

The teacher asks if I would tell the children about Washington. I do and when I finish, I ask the children a few questions in an attempt to get some responses from them. When I am unsuccessful the teacher tries to interpret my questions to them, but she gets scarcely anything beyond a single "yes" or "no" from a few. We say goodbye to the pupils and teacher and start for the door. The teacher follows us and explains, "These children just will not talk to strangers. They are so shy that I have a hard time getting them to talk to me." We glance around the almost barren classroom and wonder, "What is there to talk about?"

Which kind of classrooms would the visitors find in your school? Are the children using all the English they know to share their knowledge with others, to express their ideas and feelings, and to ask questions to get the information they want? Are the teachers using every opportunity to build English capability? Each teacher will want to answer these questions for herself.

8. PROBLEMS OF THE BILINGUAL CHILD

THE PROBLEMS OF TEACHING the bilingual child, in themselves, call for as much ingenuity and inventiveness on the part of the teacher as any field of instruction.

Such teaching rests on the essential base of discovering those fields of daily activity in which the child will have actual need for the new vocabulary in English that we desire to teach him. This involves eliminating the quite reasonable objection on his part to learning something which, from his viewpoint, is only of service to foreigners and their kind of life.

He goes to his home at night and has a fully adequate language for his needs there. We go to our homes at night and use our language in the social milieu we find.

Therefore, in the school hours at our dis-

posal, we are limited only to actual situations for an English need and desire to learn on his part, plus such situations as we may devise to introduce him to our community life and the services useful to him.

Play obviously provides situations in which he will need to learn new words, expressions, and social devices of use to him. Unfamiliar objects of the classroom, simple machines and equipment not of his own experience, processes of civilization which may be demonstrated (not described), picture magazines and books—all these offer approaches.

Something, too, might be said of the emotional factor involved. A child who comes to regard a teacher and other school employees as friends will want to know English if only for contact with what he regards as those interesting new personalities. The rapport in this case comes first, before language, and the teacher might do well to talk normally as to one who does understand, or, as one speaks to a baby in one's own family when trying to teach him to talk—but repetitiously enough that the child by imitation, if by no other means, learns words and expressions. The adventurous teacher will find a thrilling number of ways to teach the bilingual child once the right direction is set. That direction consists of arousing in the child himself the desire to learn.

The optimum way of teaching the new language is always in relation to experiences—not only familiar ones but new ones based upon the interests and exigencies of the child. How well a child learns and how well he recalls the learning for future use depend on the relation of new experiences to experiences already lived. The latter expand the child's horizons but can be interpreted only in terms of the former. They extend from home to neighborhood to community and, in time, even beyond by means of contact with people, by various forms of communication, by travel, by pictures, until people far away and cultures quite remote become a part of the child's knowledge.

Experiences provide the child with needed materials not only for language growth but for contrast and comparison, manipulation, experimentation, and exploration—all of which develop powers of discrimination and differentiation.

A child needs to have experiences with other children to learn the ways of democracy. Through experiences in group living he learns to share, to give and take, and to choose what seems best for the greatest number of the group. These experiences provide a curriculum for the bilingual child which is much more than learning words by rote in a classroom. A child learns to share ideas and experiences about what he does in the home, in the community, and in the school. He solves his own problems. He learns the way of life—the clothes, the food, the school and community services, forms of play, and the songs of the people into whose community he is being invited. One needs to become a part of a new environment to learn its language.

When **real** experiences—those vital to the everyday needs and interest of a child—are provided, unnatural forms of language find no place in the learning process. This means we do not teach a child to say "I sit down," "I stand up" because these expressions are not used in real life. There are occasions when a teacher needs to give the direction, "Sit down" or "Stand up" and with motions can make herself understood. Until a child needs the expression, there is no use in having him tell what he did. Sooner or later someone will obstruct his vision or he may be "playing school" and then he will be equipped to say "Sit down," which is the manner in which most of us learn new expressions. In the meantime, the child learns to greet people by imitation and of necessity. The teacher may suggest, "Say good morning" if the child has not learned that he is to reciprocate after the teacher greets him a few times. "Good-bye" is a good starter as a child likes the wave that accompanies it and

feels freer to express himself as he departs to a place where he feels secure. Even learning one word encourages him in the early stages and helps him to use others before long. Some teachers pleasantly require a child, for instance, to ask for a ball to be used at recess as a real reason for using language. At first, as in the case of a small child learning to talk in his vernacular, the teacher is satisfied with just the word "ball" but as the youngster becomes increasingly capable, he is expected to say, "May I have the ball?", "May I play with the ball?" or "I want the ball." Finger plays are enjoyable and give children confidence. Later on choral readings have similar beneficial effects. Another natural way for a child to use English is to tell about what he has painted in his picture—this runs the gamut, too, of one word to colors used, to what people are doing, etc. Talking about pets or toys brought to school or provided by the school, science material picked up enroute to school, food eaten, experiences such as an airplane going overhead, utensils used, work to be done, games, choices of activity for free time, the visit of a nurse and so on, ad infinitum—all these are real opportunities for speaking English.

Even though a child learns to speak by imitation, he is handicapped for some time because he does not think in the second language. When an English-speaking person first learns to say "adios," for example, he thinks "good-bye" but later on the words are used interchangeably with no translation taking place in one's mental processes. That is a goal that can be reached by much use of the new language based upon repeated and rich experiences.

Another difficulty encountered by the child is his inability to make correctly all of the sounds in the new language. In most cases he is unaware that his speech differs from that of the teacher. His ear has not been trained to note the distinction. Because the youngster wants to speak correctly and because he is not yet as sensitive about be-

ing corrected as is an adult, he can be shown by the teacher how to use his speech organs to produce the correct sounds. Occasionally the teacher may have cause to let the child watch him in a mirror while the child tries to use his tongue and lips in the manner demonstrated. This, of course, must not be carried to the extreme until a child becomes discouraged. Often "exchanging words" with the child serves as a boon to learning because it establishes rapport. When he sees the teacher struggle to make the sounds of his language, asking him to repeat the words correctly to insure correct pronunciation and enunciation, the child is less hesitant to try the next time he encounters English words. It seems more sensible to correct a child when he is young, less sensitive, and more easily changed than to wait until he is older and less receptive; and habits, harder to break than in youth, may become an economic liability. Learning to say "mother" instead of "mudder" is not too difficult for a small child if it is taught properly and insisted upon. Corrections should not be made when a child is struggling to express himself, however.

Whenever possible, the teacher should study the structure of the child's native language. In so doing she is better able to understand his difficulties and to help him make the adjustment to the second language.

A non-English-speaking child is often confused with double meanings of words in the English language. He uses a "fork" at the table, he is told to turn at the "fork" of the road, and someone may even tell him to "fork" over his marbles. Then there are many idioms in the English language that may lead to wrong understanding until explained. Just what would a child think if we said someone had a "sweet tooth," "a green thumb," "an itchy foot," or "sticky fingers?" The specific connotation needs careful explanation. It takes years of acquaintance with a different culture to learn its idioms and their uses.

When new words, unusual expressions, or idioms appear in conversation or in reading, the teacher should take nothing for granted but see that every means possible is employed to explain. Dramatizations, objects, pictures, and synonyms all aid in making meanings clear.

An effective method of teaching correct speech has been found in the use of the phonograph. The record can be played over and over until the child is sure of the sound. If, in addition, the school can supply a recorder, a child's voice can be recorded and played back to him so that, in time, he can distinguish between the way he makes certain sounds and the correct method heard on the phonograph record. Experiments have shown that phenomenal progress can be made by such procedures.

One of the chief pitfalls for the bilingual child is that of being rushed into reading before he has acquired enough English to understand what he is expected to read. Because he can memorize easily he often gives the impression he is reading (which is getting **meaning** from the printed word) when he is only word-calling. If this procedure is allowed to continue, the child bogs down in a year or so and is considered stupid when, in reality, it is only a matter of not knowing enough English, learned through experience, before starting to read.

Someone has said there are three steps to teaching a child to learn a new language—**experience, experience, experience**. It is undoubtedly true that sitting at an empty desk in a colorless schoolroom with nothing attractive to look at or to do is the worst possible atmosphere in which to learn anything, much less a foreign language. Classrooms for non-English-speaking children should have the richest amount of toys, games, science material, pets, a terrarium, and aquarium, picture books, clay, paints, crayolas, balls, bats, jacks, marbles, tops, blocks, sewing materials, various kinds of paper, finger painting materials, dolls and anything

else that is attractive and worthwhile.

It is well to caution the teacher of the bilingual child that the task is not completed the first year of his school life but must be continuously worked on from grade to grade. It may be many years before he speaks the language fluently, understands when he hears, and obtains correct meaning from his reading. In fact, the job is never completed but that only adds to its challenge.

9. TEACHING ENGLISH

LISTEN, REPEAT, MEMORIZE. These are the three basic principles of learning to speak any new language. The experienced teacher of English to non-English-speaking students is fully aware of this. She knows also that her degree of success in teaching a new language is based on the degree to which she applies these three basic principles.

Using them systematically, the first step is to write a series of short conversations covering basic language needs of the students. Campus needs are first. The first conversation should cover the morning greeting such as:

Good morning, John.

Good morning, Mrs. Blossom.

How are you?

I'm fine, thank you.

Another one could go like this:

Where do you live?

I live at Tuba City.

Where does Tom live?

He lives at Ganado.

Notice that the sentences are short. For older students, not more than eight new words are added to each new conversation. Dr. Tiremen, who has done much work with Spanish-speaking children in New Mexico, says that with young children four new words in a conversation are enough. Use only simple, everyday words.

Some sort of a record of these words must be kept. There are several good English

wordlists available, but if a basic list is used it must be supplemented by an environmental list. Such words as dormitory, advisor, auditorium, clinic, matron, and proper names all belong on this environmental list.

To present these conversations, divide the room into groups of not more than ten. Bring each group to the reading circle and present the conversation sentence by sentence. Have the students repeat after you in unison two or three times, then individually until they are quite familiar with the sentence. Show them how to place the tongue and lips to make the sounds just as you do. The only sounds that will cause trouble are the ones not found in the student's own language.

For example, the Special Navajo students substitute "d" for "th" because the Navajo language has no "th" sound. They substitute "b" for "v" for the same reason. After the conversation has been presented orally to the students, it must be memorized by repeating it over and over. At this stage no attempt is made to teach reading. It is extremely important that ear training be developed first and that a speaking knowledge of the new language be established. Reading and writing will come two or three times faster if this rule is observed.

The work of memorization is taken over by a sound scribe or a tape recorder, plus a string of earphones. You may need an amplifier box between the earphones and the sound scribe or tape recorder, depending on how many earphones are attached.

Make your recordings beforehand, sentence by sentence. Pause for about ten seconds after each sentence to give the student time to repeat. He should listen and repeat until eventually he has it completely memorized. Then let him come to your desk with a partner and repeat it to you as a conversation. If the students are completely non-English-speaking, it will take about two weeks of patient encouragement to get the listen and repeat habit firmly established.

Now a word about the listening equip-

ment. It can be as good as another teacher in your room if rightfully used. Take time to familiarize yourself thoroughly with its use first. Know what it will do and what it will not do. Be completely at home with it. Then teach the students to use it. Demonstrate to them and have them use it under your supervision before you leave them alone with it. Your listening equipment can be a source of great help or great frustration, depending on your understanding of it.

Not all children who enter our schools are completely non-English-speaking but many of them are learning English as a second language and have a limited speaking ability. As one group of boys said, "We know what the matron is saying but we just don't know how to answer."

One 4-year teacher in the Special Navajo Program at Phoenix met this situation by using the Home Economics vocabulary words and working them into practical conversations for Home Economics girls. For example: Let's bake a cake—

We take shortening from a can.
We blend the shortening and sugar.
We add milk and fold in flour.
We stir it gently until all ingredients are mixed thoroughly.
Then we beat vigorously.

Or, Lesson No. 3—CLEANING

You must keep in mind that curtains and draperies are part of any room you are cleaning. They must be vacuumed or brushed carefully. You need to keep the surroundings clean.

These girls spoke English quite well but there were specialized words that were new to them. Their jobs could be dependent on whether or not they knew these words. Since these girls could read, they took the conversations to the dormitory for memorization after listening to them on the sound scribe. However, they were first presented orally and explained by the teacher.

There are many advantages to the listen, repeat, memorize method. The students lose

their fear of speaking the new language. They learn to speak with little or no accent. Their school work progresses at a much faster rate. Last, and perhaps most important, is the students' satisfaction in finding a way to learn to speak a new language.

10. COMMUNICATION SKILLS NEEDED BY COLLEGE-BOUND STUDENTS

THE OLD ADAGE, **F**irst impressions are lasting impressions, might well be given serious consideration by every college student. Good communication skills are essential for all college students; however, some Indian students are set apart from non-Indian students because of differences in cultural and environmental background. This situation does not alter the fact that they must be competent in the various means of communication. Many college students, both Indian and non-Indian, find the first few days of college life a very discouraging venture because they lack ready communication skills.

The story of early college failure is a repetitious one: "I never understood what was going on." "I couldn't find what class I was supposed to take." "They don't seem to care what happens to students." "They didn't teach enough English in high school." Perhaps all college students experience that feeling of inadequacy and insecurity during the first few days of their freshman year. In many cases, the beginning non-Indian student overcomes his feeling of inadequacy by over-verbalizing and participating in attention-getting activities, while many Indian students simply withdraw from this unfamiliar and frustrating experience. The temptation to withdraw, unfortunately, is greater than the will to face what appears to be an unsurmountable obstacle. In addition, in many cases, family censure for dropping out of school is negative. The student does not fear family or community rejection. Here

again, cultural background proves to be a disadvantage.

The Indian child from a non-English-speaking family begins school with a listening capacity of approximately 60, or less, English words. He virtually has no English-speaking vocabulary. His standards of communication are vastly different from those of many of his school chums. Unless corrected, the young Indian develops permanent habits which discourage communication with non-Indians. For example, the habits of slightly turning away from an approaching situation of communication with non-Indians, suppressing a natural sense of humor, harboring an unnatural state of shyness or lack of aggression, attempting to learn facts incidentally rather than asking questions, and most serious of all, the habit of assuming that what is left unsaid is still understood all tend to isolate him from non-Indian association.

Without a doubt, the most common criticism expressed by Indian students is that they were not taught enough English in high school. This does not mean that all English teachers are unsuccessful or that more English classes are needed. It does mean that students may not get enough practical experience in the application of communication skills, especially in using oral English.

Students must learn to overcome the temptation to sit in the back of the room and say as little as possible. They should be encouraged to respond to any communication extended by others. Once the ice is broken, the flow of conversation becomes easier, and the temptation to listen without audio or visual response soon diminishes. Most Indian students have a talent for being able to produce beautiful handwriting. Sometimes this talent becomes a crutch that is a disadvantage. To sit in class unobtrusively and depend upon writing deprives the individual of verbal communication skills which are needed to be successful in school and in job placement after college.

It is true that people may not express

themselves by written word any better than they speak. It is also a fact that students who lack fluency in speech find reading more difficult. Verbal ease is an expression of confidence. It is attained by conscientious and organized practice begun in the home and continued throughout life from the student's first day of school. Recognition of this fact by school personnel is one of the first steps in helping the potential college student to be successful in his ventures in elementary and high school, in institutions of higher education, and in adjusting to his work and social environment.

This past year at a meeting to plan a youth conference, a senior girl suggested that Indian youth consider the problem of the feeling of inadequacy and inferiority. This is the problem of inexperienced youth, whether Indian or non-Indian. During college orientation days, one may observe many anxious-looking freshmen who are given moral support from equally anxious but proud parents. Many beginning Indian youth feel even more anxious because they have been projected, without parental support, into a situation where they must depend upon skills learned at school. College-bound Indian students need considerably more than the best wishes of school personnel, parents, tribal members, and friends. They need direction and practice in the acceptable methods of communication which include an easy command of oral language skills.

Teachers must guard against acquiring the habit of permitting the Indian student to express himself only partially with the remainder of expression supplemented by the teacher. Unawareness of this habit retards the student in his ability to communicate with people who are unable to comprehend the idea he is attempting to express; nor can they understand why he cannot express himself completely. As a result of this situation, college teachers assume that the student lacks the necessary skills to do college work successfully.

Ease of communication for the college-bound Indian student will come when he knows he has such command of the language that he can put into words any idea he wishes to express. As teachers of these students, let us make opportunities for them to become proficient in the communication skills. Let us remember that the Indian student who enters college with the skill to express his ideas with ease has already gone a considerable way toward adjusting to the new environment in which he finds himself.

11. YES, NELLIE WAS A TEACHER

NELLIE'S new fourth-grade teacher had not been west of the Mississippi River before and her limited knowledge of Navajo life must have been apparent. However, she moved cautiously trying to give her young pupils a sense of security and to avoid wrong impressions, which are sometimes lasting.

Within a few days, teacher and Nellie were slowly bridging the gap which usually widens when a stranger comes on the scene. Yes, maybe her new teacher was there to help; this much Nellie was beginning to believe. So Thursday afternoon of the first week Nellie volunteered to stay after school and "help teacher dust." Silently she dusted her way nearer and nearer to the table where teacher was working. Finally she asked softly, "You talk Navajo?"

"No, Nellie, I cannot talk Navajo."

"I teach you Navajo," she whispered.

"That will be fine. You teach me to speak Navajo and I will teach you more English."

At this point the conversation ended. Nellie had carried out the first part of her plan successfully, so why should she waste words. After the dusting was finished and the dust-cloth put away carefully, she slipped out of the room and down the hall.

When teacher came out of the school building, there sat Nellie on the front steps waiting patiently. "I teach you Navajo now," she said. This opportunity to learn Navajo so soon was far more than teacher had expected. In fact, this was almost too good to be true!

As the two walked across the campus hand in hand, the first lesson in Navajo was given. Teacher was told once in Navajo the name of everything in sight. The lesson began with Mother Earth, moved to things both far and near, and ended with Father Sky. Nellie's Navajo words were spoken with confidence but even then her teacher had to strain to catch each unfamiliar sound. She tried to repeat these strange new words but with much difficulty. When the two reached the club where teacher lived, Nellie smiled and ran to join her friends at play.

No mention was made of a Navajo lesson the following morning; however, that afternoon Nellie prepared her lesson plan and waited on the front steps. The words, "I give you a test today," came as a complete surprise to teacher as she walked out the front door.

The two started across the campus again. Nellie was confident that her teacher knew many Navajo words because she had told them to her the day before, while teacher was trying to recall just one Navajo word. Soon Nellie showed signs of growing impatience with her pupil, who had not remembered a single Navajo word. Finally she could see no good reason to continue with her lesson plan for the day. So she stopped short, looked down at the ground, kicked a rock with the toe of her small shoe and said, "Well, teacher, you dumb."

Yes, Nellie was a teacher. 'Tis true Nellie did not teach her new friend one word of Navajo, but she taught her a lesson that has been far more valuable to her in the years that have followed.

I know, I was Nellie's teacher!

GUIDANCE FOR INDIAN STUDENTS

1. GUIDANCE FUNCTION IN AN INDIAN SCHOOL

A SCHOOL GUIDANCE PROGRAM in a Federal Indian school is not exactly the same as a guidance program in a public school. A Federal Indian school guidance program must do all that is expected of a guidance program in a public school, and more. The guidance program is different because the Federal Indian school must perform a somewhat different function than the average public school. The purpose of the average public school is to orient the child to the culture in which he was born; the purpose of the Federal Indian school is to help the Indian child to bridge two cultures. Therefore, the Federal Indian school must do all that the public schools do in terms of subject matter instruction, motivation, goal selection, etc.

The Federal Indian school must be prepared to provide Indian youth with educational and vocational guidance services. It must be prepared to help Indian youth meet problems of educational retardation and educational giftedness. It must be prepared to assume the responsibility for developing capacities and matching them with objectives that assure realistic choices of vocations; assessing specific educational weaknesses and strengths and finding ways of overcoming weaknesses and enhancing strengths; motivating and inspiring youth to strive for the goals that call for the best in them; and locating employment opportunities that help youth take advantage of them; counseling the collegebound, etc. All of this is in the province of educational and vocational guidance, and specifically and primarily is within the province of the

school.

Educational and vocational guidance is what most people have in mind when they speak of school guidance. Educational and vocational guidance surely must be an important part of the guidance program of Federal Indian schools, because most Indian youth in these schools come from non-education-oriented homes. Therefore, not just the same, but more attention must be given to educational motivation, goal choosing, and overcoming language handicaps. But educational guidance, important as it is, is not where school guidance ends in a Federal Indian school.

Federal Indian schools, in addition to the ordinary educational and vocational guidance services, must provide Indian youth with additional guidance services. Unless school staffs have a deep insight into the needs for guidance, in addition to the educational type, they will not fully meet the guidance needs of Indian youth.

Problems of Social Adjustment

Indian people are finding it necessary, and often difficult, to make the great social adjustments required to live effectively and happily in a rapidly changing modern world. (Indians are not alone, because some of the rest of us also find it difficult to keep up with the demands of a space age.) Indian children, especially those in Federal Indian schools (80 percent of whom are from full blood, mostly traditionally oriented homes), must be helped to bridge the gaps between two cultures. Each child must learn to select from both cultures, and fashion from the two a culture which will serve him in a world that is changing so rapidly that it makes the heads of those of us who grew up in it swim

in giddiness. This is an adjustment area that the average public school does not have to meet, at least does not have to meet it to the same degree and alone. This is an area of culture orientation that ordinarily is carried by other institutions of our society, primarily the home. The Federal Indian school, on the other hand, must face up to special responsibility for social-adjustment guidance services.

Problems of Growing Up

All youth face problems of growing up, and they need the guidance and support of adults to meet these personal problems. As the psychologists would say, they need understanding guidance in performing their developmental tasks of growing from infancy to childhood, to adolescence, to adulthood. There are behavior characteristics peculiar to and normal for each stage of development.

Each Indian culture had its methods of helping its children mature, and each had ways of recognizing stages of maturation, and methods of easing the attendant strains and stresses of growing up. Children were taught the responsibilities they were expected to assume at each stage, and they were ceremoniously inducted into each stage. This was carried out within the framework or pattern established by the culture; for example, the puberty ceremonies, the hunting ceremonies, the planting and harvesting ceremonies, etc.

The traditionally oriented Indian home is at a loss today in helping its children understand and meet their tasks of growing up in a modern world. For the Indian child enrolled in a Federal Indian school, the school personnel must assume this responsibility. The school must function, then, in an added area of guidance which for lack of a better term we shall call personal guidance. A school staff cannot carry this responsibility effectively unless the staff has a good understanding of the stages of child development and the normal-type problems children face at each stage. Without this understand-

ing, children experiencing normal growing-up problems are likely to be categorized and treated as problem children. This mistake is one of the surest ways of pushing children toward delinquent behavior.

Need for Guidance Increasing

The responsibilities which the school must carry in the area of guidance—educational, vocational, social, and personal—for today's Indian children place a much greater load on the school than it did a few years back. The problems the school must deal with are growing more complex each year. For example, 40 years ago educational guidance for most Indian youth was as simple as: "Get an elementary education to live better on Indian reservations." Today, Indians must compete in a world where even a high-school education is not enough. They must find their way in a world of professional workers and highly skilled workers; in a world where less than 5 percent of the work is now of the unskilled type that requires only an elementary education, and that 5 percent is expected to be cut in half during this decade.

All of the major areas of guidance—educational, vocational, social, and personal—are intimately interrelated. An effective guidance program therefore must be organized in such a way that major staff roles are recognized and assigned, but at the same time ample opportunity must be provided for coordination of efforts to provide for this interrelatedness.

The areas of educational and vocational guidance are primary responsibilities of the academic and vocational departments of a school. The dormitory staff carries major responsibility for the social and personal guidance of the students. At the same time, a dormitory staff cannot perform its major responsibility in the areas of personal and social guidance without understanding the relatedness of its efforts with the efforts of the staffs in the academic and vocational departments of the school. For example, a boy may have a personal problem which he

takes to his counselor in the dormitory. This problem may stem from his failure in the classroom; or a teacher may try to deal with an educational problem which stems from problems of dormitory life. Consequently, guidance programs must be organized to provide for free communication among all departments of the school.

Major Responsibility for Social Guidance

On the other hand, there must be assignment of major responsibility. For a number of years schools were better staffed to carry their function of educational and vocational guidance than they were to carry their responsibility for social and personal guidance. Dormitories were understaffed, often with one employee assigned to 60-100 pupils after school hours. In most schools there was no night coverage, except for employees who slept in the dormitories. In many dormitories there were no professionally trained guidance personal.

Two years ago (1959), a Congressional appropriation provided for strengthening the dormitory staff. Night coverage was provided, a greater ratio of professionally trained employees was provided, and employment standards were upgraded.

Now, with more adequate dormitory staff, all Federal Indian schools are charged with the responsibility for strengthening their guidance services to Indian youth in the social and personal areas. This means using every resource at our command to develop greater understanding and skill on the part of dormitory staff; upgrading the living environment in dormitories; providing a variety of out-of-school activities to challenge student interest; providing materials and equipment in the dormitories to expose Indian youth to standards of living in a modern world; and providing opportunities in dormitories for cultural experiences such as music, art, dramatics, etc.

Our weakest link in our guidance program has been that area of guidance assigned to the dormitory staff. This has not been the fault of the staff, because one employee

responsible for 60-100 pupils after school hours could do little more than keep count of the children. Now, with increased staff we must all lend our efforts and use all of the resources available to make the out-of-school hours of Indian youth really count in his total education, including personal and social adjustment. If we make our efforts really count, all but the most severe emotional and disciplinary problems can be met by a competent school staff. The problems of the seriously disturbed children could never be met entirely by a school staff without outside help regardless of how great its competency. Our present task, then, is to develop our competency in the field of guidance to its fullest so that we learn to recognize the difference between the Indian child whose problems are merely problems of growing up in a different culture and the problems of the seriously disturbed child. The first is within our responsibility and competency; for the latter we must seek outside help.

2. IMPROVEMENT OF GUIDANCE SERVICES IN BUREAU SCHOOLS

AS described in an earlier article, Bureau educators have been working to strengthen the guidance services in boarding schools. This effort has taken several forms. Staff has been increased to provide night coverage and more adequate coverage during the day hours. Professional qualifications for guidance department heads and teachers (guidance) have been upgraded. Larger schools also may employ a top guidance person if certain requirements are met. The title of dormitory attendant has been changed to instructional aid (child guidance).

During the past two or three years much effort has gone into upgrading the living environment in dormitories. Dormitory living rooms have been refurbished; new furniture

EDUCATION FOR CROSS-CULTURAL ENRICHMENT

has been provided; and reading and television rooms have been set up. Story hours have become a part of the program for smaller children. Snack kitchens in dormitories permit teenagers to have parties which they enjoy; juke boxes and gamerooms are provided in some dormitories. In spite of all this, much remains to be done to provide a living environment that will give under-educated youth experiences in modern living and wholesome recreation.

Workshops of various kinds have been held to develop staff. For example, the results of the arts and crafts workshop held at Intermountain and a second one held at Ft. Lewis for instructional aids (child guidance) are being reflected this school year in greater activity in craft work in school dormitories during out-of-school hours. More can be done along this line to occupy students profitably with activities suited to their interests. A great number of club activities such as Scouting, 4-H, music, art, etc., are being carried on. Still more could be done.

These are only a few of the things that are being done or can be done. Resourceful staff members will think of many other types of activities that can be carried on within their present resources to enrich the dormitory living of students. The extent of what can be done knows no bounds other than the boundaries of a staff's imagination and ingenuity.

Much of what has been done to strengthen the dormitory program has been in the physical aspects of dormitory living. We are now ready to take another important step, and that step is to help the dormitory staff deepen their understanding of children and to strengthen their professional skills to the end that they may better help children and youth grow and develop into emotionally stable and healthy adults. This next step will require the same kind of diligent efforts that characterize present efforts.

All of us need to strengthen our knowledge of the normal behavior patterns of children and youth as they grow from child-

hood toward adulthood. This is the type of knowledge that we must have to understand the problems and reactions of the youth under our care and instruction. Especially is this true of the staff in school dormitories because they provide a large share of the present adult contacts students in boarding schools have. The dormitory staff, perhaps more than any other staff, can have and do have the greatest influence on student behavior. They, more than anyone else in the schools, become the adult models for the students they guide and counsel. This places a great responsibility on this staff—a responsibility similar to that of parents—because as staff members are, their students, in imitation of them, will become.

There is much each staff member must know about the growth of children, and the type of behavior to expect at each stage of their growth. In addition, each staff member must learn how to provide the personal and emotional support children need to promote wholesome growth. How do the interests of children change as they grow up? How does one stimulate new interests? What are some of the problems all children experience, problems peculiar to them at different stages of their growth? How does one help children face their problems? The problems of a 6-year-old adjusting to a larger social group are real problems for him at this age. These normal childhood problems, if not understood and handled with adequate understanding and skill, can retard the maturing process and even sow the seeds for more serious problems later. The problems stemming from love affairs are serious problems for teenagers; they can neither be ignored nor wished away. Teenagers need understanding and help in resolving such problems in ways that promote healthy adjustments. Unless this is done, serious maladjustments may be the consequence. Therefore, it is important that staff deepen their understanding of behavior patterns and sharpen their skills in helping each student resolve his particular problems, and

resolve them in such a way that each experience contributes positively to his individual growth and security.

School Administrators' Role in Guidance

If development of deeper understandings and greater skills in working with children and youth is our next major step, what resources do school administrators have available to achieve this goal?

Educational leave can be used by dormitory staff. Instructional aids, (child guidance) should be encouraged to use educational leave during summer months to take courses related to their work with children, and as many as possible should be encouraged to work toward a college degree in the guidance field.

Teachers (guidance) should likewise take courses that will strengthen their own skills and understanding in all areas of their guidance work.

Department heads should take courses in psychology, counseling techniques, case study work, etc. All department heads and teachers (guidance) should aim at a masters degree in the guidance field.

The top guidance person should come well qualified with degrees in the guidance field. Nevertheless, he too, must keep abreast of newer findings and methods in the guidance field.

School leadership should provide inservice training for the dormitory staff. The overall responsibility for this development, of course, rests with school administrators. Naturally, they will delegate this responsibility to the top guidance employee or employees on their staffs.

The larger boarding schools now are permitted a top guidance person. Although this top guidance employee has leadership responsibility to develop with all of the school staff deeper understandings of the total guidance function of the school, his first and primary effort should be devoted to developing greater skills and understandings on the part of the staff in the dormitories. In schools that are staffed with a depart-

ment head (guidance) for each of the boys' and girls' departments, these department heads carry this responsibility without the supervision of a top guidance person.

Whether the final guidance leadership rests in a single person or in two department heads, a program of dormitory staff development should be planned and carried out. The following are suggested activities to promote employee growth:

Regular staff training sessions should be conducted by those in leadership guidance positions. These sessions should be well planned with each session laying the base for the next session. The entire series should aim at giving employees an understanding of the types of behavior to expect from children at different stages of their development. Dormitory staff should do extensive professional reading and discuss what they have learned and its application to their daily work with children. These types of meetings are conducted more or less as formal instructional courses. These courses should give the staff an understanding that children of any given age differ somewhat from one another in stages of development, but that children within a range of ages such as 6 to 8, 9 to 11, 12 to 14, 15 to 17 have definite tendencies that differ from the next group. For example, early childhood is marked by trust and the need for closeness of a parent, the security of doing things by twos and threes with other children, short interest span, and activities with much physical motion and large movements.

The 9-11 range is marked by some steps toward independence. Boys want to be with boys, to explore places and things, to make things go. Girls want to be with girls; they want to be helpful to mother, to make things prettier. All want to get along with their playmates.

The 12-14's want to cling to something in childhood such as active games, things collected. On the other hand they want to do some things in an adult way; they want to look attractive; they want to excel at

something, but are easily embarrassed; and they adopt "ideals." They want leadership, but would like to choose it.

The 15-17 adolescents want to get along with both sexes. They want to excel at something adultlike; they want leadership they can respect; they want a chance to try more things alone; and they want to look well. The lists for even general characteristics are much longer than this, but these are examples of what we must understand and help the student build onto constructively because they all want friendship, security, and confidence as a base. These stages of development provide a framework for organizing inservice training sessions for instructional aids (child guidance).

A second type of conference, not to replace the formal instructional courses but as a supplement to them, is the staff conference developed around the study of problems that come up. For example, if there is a problem of disrespect for the personal belongings of others, the causes of the problem could be analyzed in a staff conference. Is clothing disappearing because children do not have enough to supply their needs or they do not have adequate facilities to care for it or they do not understand the concept of personal property as versus communal property? Is this a general problem or is it a problem with a particular few?

Frequent conferences, of an informal nature, could be devoted to the causes and needed remedies for the various types of behavior problems that dormitory staff face in their instruction of youth.

Some school administrators have been able to get nearby colleges and universities to conduct extension courses for their dormitory staffs. This plan gives staff members an opportunity, in connection with their jobs, to build up college credits toward degrees as well as to deepen their understandings of youth.

School administrators may make use of the services of the Washington Office supervisors headquartered at the Field Technical

Unit, as well as those headquartered in Washington, to assist them in planning inservice training sessions to be conducted regularly during the year at the school.

The Washington Office Branch of Education plans to conduct special inservice sessions for top guidance personnel. School administrators can encourage and arrange for their top guidance staff to attend such training sessions.

All of the special guides that have been prepared should be used by the guidance staff. Each member of the dormitory staff should have in his possession for study and use, or at least have access to, the following Bureau publications:*

- a. Minimum Essential Goals for Everyday Living in Indian Schools. 1952
- b. Dormitory Life: Is it Living? 1958
- c. Series of Lesson for Inservice Training of Instructional Aids (Child Guidance). 1960
- d. Educational Film Catalog for Bureau of Indian Affairs Schools. 1962
- e. Dormitory Recreation Equipment. 1955
- f. Minimum Standards for the Operation of Boarding Schools, Boarding Schools With Day Pupils, and Dormitory Schools. 1959
- g. Housekeeping in Boarding and Day Schools. 1962

Leadership should make available, even though limited, a basic professional library for dormitory staff.

These are a few suggestive activities that can be carried on to strengthen the competence of a dormitory staff.

Nothing has been said about understanding students who have serious maladjustment problems. Comparatively speaking, the number in each school is small, and when such cases do exist the problems are of such a complex nature that resources outside the school must be used to help resolve the problems. Our first step is to strengthen our

*Publications should be available in the guidance and/or school offices.

skills in working with children who are experiencing the normal problems of youth growing up. If we do our work well in this area, which is within the competence of a school staff, we will go a longways toward preventing maladjustment. It is up to us—all of us—to develop greater competence in working with children. Those of us with leadership responsibility must assist the staff in developing greater competence in understanding youth. Staff working with youth must apply themselves diligently to learn more about children and thus strengthen their skills in working with them.

This, then, points up for all of us the next important step we must take to do a more effective guidance program; namely, to strengthen the skills of the dormitory staff.

3. THE DORMITORY PROGRAM MUST EDUCATE FOR MODERN LIVING

CHILDREN IN BOARDING SCHOOLS spend 18 percent of their time in the classroom, and 82 percent outside the classroom. For the most part, the time outside the classroom is under the direction and care of the guidance department of the school. In the classroom time the children can learn only a part of what they need. The guidance staff has the responsibility for a large share, and an important share, of each pupil's total education.

The dormitory program, to be effective, must support, strengthen, and supplement classroom instruction. For example, the dormitory staff must take the place of the home in encouraging each child to achieve at his maximum capacity.

In addition, the dormitory staff must provide the experiences which children get in a good home environment. For most of the children, their school life must provide the experiences in living that will enable them to adjust from a meager and impoverished environment to standards required in modern

life. This adjustment takes place through the daily contact with the staff, and the use of equipment and materials common to modern living. Since the dormitory must take the place of the home, and as the child is under the influence of the guidance staff the lion's share of his day, the dormitory environment is importantly related to each child's educational growth and adjustment.

The dormitory program is more than just custody of the children who are in it for 138 hours each week; it is more than seeing that they have a healthy, sanitary place to live; it is more than providing mass entertainment, important as these factors may be. It is also giving the children that feeling of security and worth that helps them come to grips with personal problems. This requires, first, a well-trained and understanding staff, and, secondly, dormitories properly equipped to do the task.

The Bureau has been upgrading dormitory facilities in most of the high schools which should contribute greatly to the schools' dormitory programs. According to the standards, a dormitory should be equipped for the type of home-living program to be carried out.

4. A BETTER PROGRAM— OUR AIM

AS A FOLLOWUP of the evaluation, the Washington and Area Office personnel met with the local Oglala Community School administrative and educational personnel to study and to formulate plans for improving the educational program.

The home living program in the dormitories was a part of the study. After consideration, the problem was identified as being how to provide a program for the effective development of good citizenship that will establish a pattern for post school life. As a result of this study, the philosophy for the guidance department is as follows:

Every student at the Oglala Community School is entitled to a comfortable place in which to live and to the personal attention which makes him feel secure and at home. Realizing that no group situation can fully take the place of the home, it will be the responsibility of the guidance department to provide facilities, guidance, and counseling that will take, as nearly as possible, the place of the home. Every student living in the dormitory is faced with the problem of being with others in a group situation and of sharing all facilities and responsibilities.

Every student needs to share in affection and to have a feeling of security.

Every student needs a person to whom he feels he can talk freely, confide his personal problems, and from whom he can receive sympathetic assistance and advice.

Before any person can teach children who live in a dormitory situation, that person must be prepared mentally and physically to carry out a program that will help the child meet his life adjustments. It is unwise to assume that new personnel, regardless of qualifications are able to step into a dormitory situation and effectively train and guide students without having the advantage of a training period. A more serious situation is that of an untrained person attempting to guide students without the advantage of a training period. A definite employee-readiness program for new personnel and a continued training program for service personnel should be strong enough that corrective guidance situations may be eliminated and constructive guidance practiced.

As part of the inservice training program four areas of guidance should be stressed

Understanding of the cultural background of students in the dormitory is paramount if effective counseling is to be achieved. Every dormitory employee must be given the time and the opportunity to make home visits, talk to parents, observe the high and low standards of reservation homes, study physical aspects of the reservation, study and observe students under unsupervised situa-

tions, study language difficulties, participate in community affairs, and gain a general understanding of the social and economic status of the people.

Professional training by qualified personnel within the school is essential. A planned schedule is necessary to provide the time so that professional people may teach dormitory personnel the most effective means of achieving proficiency so they, in turn, may teach the student. For example, the home economics department should teach the proper methods concerning the care of clothing, bed making, care of floors, and other good housekeeping practices. If dormitory personnel understand the proper methods of doing a job, they are better able to teach it. Uniform procedures and regularity within the classrooms and dormitories must be practiced to give the student a feeling of home living and security.

Professional ethics and attitude must be stressed and reviewed constantly with every employee. Group and individual guidance, with emphasis placed on personal conduct, cannot be overstressed. If employees are aware that their influence is particularly great in a boarding school, their counseling with students is much more effective. Time must be allotted so that dormitory personnel may have the opportunity to visit classrooms, playgrounds, and participate in classroom activities and programs to the extent that they gain a knowledge of the school's overall plan to educate the student. Each employee's personal appearance, conduct, work habits, social attainment, and professional growth have an important influence upon the student's response to his teaching. Therefore, it is desirable that these factors be included in inservice training for dormitory personnel.

Supervision of leisure time is probably one of the most important aspects of dormitory guidance. A strong school program is impossible with a weak dormitory situation. Students' need of guidance and direction is as great during out-of-class hours as it is dur-

ing the formal instructional periods. Their working and social habits are largely formed under dormitory conditions. Recreation should be guided so that the students will develop emotional stability, social graces, regard for their fellow man, respect for materials, and a sense of self-discipline. With the help of trained personnel, weekends, before and after school hours, and noon hours can be scheduled properly so that all students may participate in planned recreational, social, or instructional work programs. Places, time, and personnel capable of using approved techniques and materials must be provided for students who wish individual counseling.

With the philosophy as stated by the group, an adequate staffing pattern to supply the needed personnel, and a strong in-service training program Oglala Community School should move forward toward fulfilling its mission. Boys and girls should receive the guidance that will help them to make the necessary adjustment to present and post school life.

5. GROUP GUIDANCE

EVER SINCE EDUCATIONAL POLICY and guidelines for Bureau schools began to be documented in **Indian Education** two characteristics of learners in general were recognized (a) individual differences and (b) likenesses within a group. Furthermore, **Education for Cultural Change**, pp. 294-295, quotes from **Education for All Youth** published by the NEA Policies Commission (1944), reviewing for us eight ways in which youths differ and listing seven things that youths have in common. These seven factors, listed below, justify group guidance:

1. They are citizens now and will be qualified voters in the future; therefore, need education in civic responsibility and competence.
2. They are members of a family group now, and will become members of other

family groups in the future; therefore, need understanding of family relationships.

3. They are living in American culture now, and will continue to do so in the future; therefore, need understanding of the main elements in that culture.
4. They all need to maintain their mental and physical health now and in the future; therefore, need instruction to develop habits of healthful living and to understand conditions that foster health, ways of preventing disease, avoiding injuries, and using medical services.
5. They are expected to engage in useful work; therefore, need occupational guidance and training, and orientation to current economic conditions.
6. They have the capacity to think rationally; therefore, need to develop it and an appreciation of truth as arrived at by the rational process.
7. They must make decisions and take actions which involve choices of values; therefore, need insight into ethical values; basic tenets of democracy, and the surpassing worth of the individual. These suggest "common learnings."

From these two lists stem two guidance services: individual counseling and group guidance. For the most part these services were and still are combined in the essentials of good teaching everywhere. Meanwhile, as the delineations between vocational choices became finer and personal qualities for success in the many fields assumed major importance, the field of guidance became one for special attention, with specific action reaching full bloom in the secondary schools. Normally, a program in which these services are carefully appraised and balanced should be the standard.

Group guidance has been adaptable to the acceleration process and it follows that this technique should not be without a special regard for its worth. Hence, a requirement for teacher-advisers to teach formal guidance classes is written into their position

descriptions. One question that arises for teacher-advisers and school administrators is how shall formal guidance classes be structured. In actual practice the word formal should not prove as foreboding as it appears. The implicit requirement is that common interest groups should be scheduled for a series of instructional or study sessions with the teacher-adviser as the leader. The group instruction should be a definite segment of the school instructional program aside from building councils. The frequency of the meetings and effective scheduling of the classes during the week are matters to be administratively determined at the local school level. The needs of students should have uppermost consideration and it is expected that the principal together with his department heads or guidance committee will make the best functional arrangement for both individual counseling and scheduled guidance classes.

The subject content for the classes should have the same joint study. It is quite likely that the content will parallel and reemphasize school effort in such phases of the program as orientation, educational guidance, occupational information, and social competence. The techniques used within the class should at all times encourage interaction of thought and discussion. The principles of group dynamics and group therapy for the individual should operate to develop freedom of oral expression. Although there are textbooks and workbooks on the market for formal guidance classes which can stimulate discussion of problems of children and youth they should not be resorted to in their entirety to meet the requirement for formal classes. In fact, they need seldom be resorted to if the school staff has carefully surveyed the needs of its students and profited by followup studies of students beyond their school careers.

Research says group guidance is here to stay and will grow. Guidance classes as now required in the education of Indians should have curriculum status and full staff sup-

port in the school program.

Since there is a lack of research as to the degree to which group guidance accomplishes its objectives, administrators and teacher-advisers should accept the challenge to plan carefully and evaluate results as a live research project.

In conclusion, let us remember that group guidance is not something entirely apart from individual counseling; rather it is groundwork for it. Only as school administrators recognize the importance of scheduling time for these activities will the teacher-adviser's work be effective in the adjustment of students to purposeful school careers and their preparation for competent adult living.

6. TEACHING RESPONSIBILITY TO INDIAN ADOLESCENTS

NEVER BEFORE, in all history, have so many Indian children been separated from their homes. On the Navajo, close to 13,000 Navajo teenagers (probably 85 percent of the total age group) are now attending school. Whether on a day basis or on a boarding basis, both on and off the reservation, these children are now out of their hogan in a school environment. This new cultural arrangement has many implications to the teaching of responsibility about property, sobriety, and relationships with people.

Traditionally, the development of conscience and responsibility for ethical behavior was carried by the Indian home. Indian people had sound methods with effective results. In the case of the Navajo, when a person was troubled about ethical conduct, the entire clan and one's own extended family came together ceremonially to assist in helping the individual regain a proper role in daily affairs. Now, these family controls are inescapably breaking down. This is what is meant by "changing times." In these changing times, Indian children are seemingly more restless, more uncertain, and more unpredictable in their behavior.

Our own society has taken many generations to inculcate abstract ethical obligations such as patriotism for one's country, consideration for one's community, school spirit, loyalty to church or other civic groups, duty to an employer, and the like.

The non-Indian child is exposed to experiences leading to such obligations during his childhood years in varying degrees. When such experiences are not provided, the tendency to delinquency emerges. So non-Indian culture is seeing "changing times," too.

"Changing times" poses some hard questions. Specifically, the questions become: How can schools replace parents of Indian children in inculcating responsibility? How can the schools develop in Indian children responsibility to institutions which now fill their daily lives but which are new and vague to them? How can schools help Indian youth to develop a new kind of modern conscience? Their conscience, like their jobs, needs "relocation."

Unless teachers can create new approaches to building culturally new loyalties, many Indian children face a rootless, rough prospect for the future.

7. ONE STAFF'S SEARCH

INDIAN EDUCATION ARTICLES have emphasized the need of and encouraged the search for the personal key which unlocks the potential in every individual child. Granted that it takes much study, extra time, and effort, we as educators have nevertheless dedicated our life's work to successfully unlocking and developing the potential in every child.

The essence of the search in respect to the education of Indian children poses a very real and ever-present challenge to all teachers, counselors, and administrators responsible for the conduct of educational programs. The search for the key is carried on through a variety of avenues. At some schools, in-

dividual teachers or counselors may be searching diligently for the key, or several may be working cooperatively. But there are a few cases where an entire school staff is making an enthusiastic, coordinated, and effective approach in assisting every child enrolled in the school to achieve at his maximum capacity. This article is about such a staff.

In particular, it is about the staff and 28 Indian high-school-age-students who came to the school this year. These students were new to this particular school, for they came under special arrangements between the school and their home agency. They had not experienced success in their own local schools; therefore, they were either dropouts or on the verge of becoming dropouts. On the basis of the information gathered, it is the writer's opinion that these students have had more than their share of adjustment difficulties and family problems. In many cases there is severe family discord, desertion by one or both parents, and general neglect reflected in the case records. It is amazing that some students have accomplished as much as they have, or have remained in school as long as they have under such extreme conditions.

The staff members directly concerned with these students held a series of meetings, and after a review had been made of case histories, they decided on an individual plan for each student. In making these plans the staff considered test scores from achievement tests administered shortly after the students arrived, records of social adjustment difficulties, and any evidence they had of attitudes and of desires to succeed in school. In every case the student was counseled as to the reason for the plan made for him, and his cooperation to try the plan was enlisted. By doing this the staff found that the students began to understand their own needs. Through this personal contact with teachers and counselors, the students have developed an interest in learning and a

desire to remain in school. The attitude and professional endeavors of the staff, as well as their cooperative working relationships with one another, have been strong forces in bringing about a wholesome atmosphere for learning. To date, 27 of the 28 students are still in school; one could not withstand the insistence of her family to return home.

Perhaps the following episode will point out some of the approaches the staff used in identifying problems and influencing students on the threshold of ending their education. Mary is a large girl, 17 years of age. When on the reservation, she lives in the home of her aunt who, because of a large family of her own, gives little attention to Mary. According to the case history, the home conditions are extremely poor, socially as well as economically. There is little affection for Mary, yet the family depends on the money which she receives from a trust account. Her previous school records show a history of truancy and low achievement. Officials at the local school felt that because of her size and overage for her grade placement, and since the school had exhausted its means of helping her, Mary would be better off staying at home.

When first approached about attending a boarding school, Mary refused; however, as an outcome of several meetings, the shell of aggression she had developed as a defense broke away and she agreed to try it for one year. Because of her age and previous grade placement, Mary was enrolled in the tenth grade. Within a short time, she became discontented, choosing to be alone during much of her free time and refusing to take part in any extra-curricular activities. Her classwork left much to be desired and her attitude was that all classes were a bore, especially physical education where everyone had to wear shorts. Mary was on the very brink of leaving school, probably for good this time.

The counselor was aware of changes in Mary's attitude and made a point to have several conferences with her. As a result of these sessions and of subsequent meetings

between the principal and members of the guidance and teaching staffs, Mary was transferred to one of the exceptional classes and was excused from attending physical educational classes. The teacher of the exceptional class cooperated in developing a plan for her. The plan included (a) providing instructions at her own level of achievement to fill in the gaps left by previous schooling; (b) helping her to develop a sense of security in her class and dormitory groups; and (c) giving her special responsibilities, increasing them as rapidly as possible without causing additional frustrations.

Mary is changing. She takes a great deal of interest in her classwork and she has developed several friendships. Her personal appearance has improved. She asked to be returned to her physical education class; she now wears shorts which was her main objection to the class in the beginning. It is now believed that this student, despite the many adjustments which lie ahead, has more than an even chance of remaining in school, due to a staff's interest and willingness to evaluate the student's needs and adjust its program to fit them.

The type of thinking and planning that was done for Mary is typical of the care that goes into the planning for each student enrolled. One will not find written guidelines describing student attitudes and suggested approaches for the staff; nor are many of these cases documented. However, in talking with the staff members, one feels their confidence in their ability to help the students, and observes their enthusiasm for their work. The general belief at this school is that the search for the key to unlock the potential of each child is the most important role of the staff. Staff members readily admit that this search takes a lot of time and effort, but they are quick to add that the results which can be achieved are well worth the hard work.

What tangible results can we point to which support the efforts and demonstrate

the effectiveness of the staff's work? The most obvious is the cooperative working attitude among all the staff members. There are no departmental lines drawn here. For example, in Mary's case more than one department helped in developing her total program plan. And it is a certain fact that these inter-departmental working relationships didn't just happen; they were developed and are fostered through the conscious efforts of the school staff. Further evidence is that this school had a 97 percent returnee rate at the beginning of the 1960-61 school year. How satisfying it must be for Indian parents and the school staff to know that the students want to return to this school each fall, and to know that this school is continually trying to improve the quality of its programs.

8. LET'S INVOLVE THE STUDENTS

A MATURE EMPLOYEE at a boarding school was heard to say, "See that tree? I planted that tree when I went to school here. There weren't many trees then. Now there are lots of trees and lots of shade." There was pride in his voice and he went on to say some of the students helped with the concrete walks.

There were other experiences connected with the tree planting that he could have recalled. Choice and decisions had to be made. What kind of tree to plant? How far from the walks should it be planted? How deep? How big the hole? How do we line it up with other trees? How often shall we water it to be sure it grows? What else can we do to make the campus attractive?

The student probably returned to the school as an employee because he had made an investment in its future; he had become involved in something of value; something that gave him satisfaction; something for him to share.

We can't all plant trees but there are other types of constructive involvement

which bring about choices, judgments, and investments in one's environment. Let's name a few such experiences: arranging furniture in one's room or building; choosing and hanging pictures; creating objects of color, texture, size, and shape to make wall spaces and bulletin boards in dormitory and school more interesting or attractive; participating in choosing guidance films (and other films) to see, magazines and newspapers to buy; selecting small items such as throw rugs to beautify, and bulbs and seeds to grow and care for in one's building. Involvement grows to the exploring of magazines, window shopping, visiting stores to see what other people use to make environments more appealing.

Answers are found to questions like: What do wall decorations, rugs, and clocks cost? Can we make some of the things that are being sold in stores? All of this calls for some additional looking at pictures, some reading, some arithmetic, some planning, some choosing, and some evaluating. These are lasting values; they furnish zest for learning and formation of constructive attitudes which we too often find easy to state but hard to motivate.

Small daily experiences in making decisions about one's environment add up to investments, both tangible and intangible in one's school. Students like a school they have a part in building. One doesn't run away from a school one has an investment in—pride in being there, pride in doing things the school stands for become an attribute that enhances learning and achievement.

Arriving at choices in the group living situations found in daily school life is important to critical thinking. This is one of our big goals. Wise choices? Only time will tell how wise they are, but adolescents and younger children can at least weigh values and make deliberated choices within many areas of which they are not now aware. Students can influence change and under guidance-minded staff members can secure

frequent practice in making decisions about their social and physical environment.

Let's take stock of the things we have been deciding for the students and see if we can't involve them in helping to temper some of these decisions that affect their day-to-day activities. This type of involvement is the beginning of trust, and trust is a basic need for young people. The satisfactions gained add to their security, and adding to their security in this manner builds self-reliance. This is learning through the problem-solving method. Isn't that what we all seek?

9. GUIDANCE COMMITTEE OR ASSEMBLY LINE?

UNLIKE THE AUTOMOBILE, each year's model of student has the same basic design, attributes, and needs. He is far ahead of the auto technologically in that his automation is complete, and for this reason attempts at comparison soon break down.

The sameness of basic design permits us to construct physical plant facilities for learners with some ease. It is less easy to provide for constructive interactions of environment, previous experience, emotions, abilities, aspirations, and interest. Yet our major satisfactions come from our successes in this second phase of our jobs.

It appears that the boarding high school has the most complex assignment, and consequently, the most diversified plant needs. Here the usual academic program is overlaid with vocational training and home living routines together with recreation, social life, planning further education, employment, church and community roles, accompanied by all the emotional adjustments called for in these settings.

The needs for individualized and group guidance are constant. The principal is responsible and may have assistance in guidance from department heads but neither he nor a single department should proceed

alone with a guidance program. Experience has proven that a guidance committee of staff members representing the many phases of student adjustment and progress is an equalizer for responsibility and a most functional task force for attaining the objectives of our educational program.

The elements of an effective guidance committee are these:

1. The principal is responsible for adequate representation on the committee. He is an active member himself.
2. All departments and special services of the school are represented. The assistance of outside resource people is actively sought and utilized.
3. The chairmanship may rotate.
4. The committee meets at least once a month.
5. Minutes of the meeting are recorded and summaries are produced in multiple copies for distribution to staff members and other interested persons.
6. Subcommittees are assigned to specific areas of guidance and report to the committee of the whole. A summary statement of the responsibility of each subcommittee and department role is distributed to the entire staff. Committees are concerned with such activities as:
 - a. Program of tests and interpretation of results; keeping of student records for use and effectiveness at each level in connection with counseling
 - b. Provision for interview and counseling schedules for all students each year
 - c. Provision for staff group case studies of individual student adjustment in special cases
 - d. Adequate recreation and social activities program
 - e. Occupational information at all levels and provision for incorporating it into curriculum content
 - f. Job placement
 - g. Followup of all school leavers: drop-outs, graduates, hospital patients.
7. Student participation is involved in as

- many subcommittees as possible.
8. The success stories and results of follow-up surveys of students are shared with the general public in newspapers, school publications, and other public relations contacts.

These elements are typical and are not intended to be a complete list but will serve as one measure for committees now operating or being formed.

In summary, we can make one comparison of the automobile and the student. It is performance on the road and in the field of work that counts. How will our product pass inspection and meet competition? So much depends on concerted attention to details and to personalized techniques that take school services out of assembly-line routines. Sharing the load among the talents and abilities of the entire staff through a guidance committee has proven to be a sound and satisfying venture for schools and their beneficiaries, the students. It has usefulness in all types of schools. (Manual Reference: 62 IAM 1.2.4P (7))

10. YOUTH NEED SUPPORT

ON a recent plane trip I chose a seat beside an 11-year-old boy enroute to his Chicago home after a month's vacation in California with a grandmother. This lad proved to be one of the most interesting plane companions I have ever had. He was well-behaved, courteous, and delightfully interesting. He carried on conversation with ease; he was poised and sure of himself without being overly assertive. His comments and questions about the country over which we traveled showed that curiosity and inquisitiveness were a part of his nature. I deplaned before he did, and he surprised me by saying that he was glad to have met me and that he had enjoyed our ride together. We wished each other a pleasant journey and said goodbye.

I perhaps will never see this lad again, but

the memory of him stays with me and has prompted many reflections and mental questions. The adults in his life surely must provide him with good models after which to pattern his personality. Courtesy, poise, and security are learned through imitation of people who themselves are courteous, poised, and secure. This lad's relationships with the adults in his life must be quite satisfying or else he would not have felt at ease with an adult who was a total stranger to him. He must live around adults who show interest in the things he is interested in and who take the time to answer his questions or he would not have felt free to ask a complete stranger for information about the new country he was seeing. Somebody must have taken the pains to teach him, by example, the little niceties of life, or he would not have expressed pleasure over meeting a stranger. All of this was a genuine part of his personality and was not a veneer—remarkable in my estimation for a boy only eleven.

Through example, the adults in the life of this boy must be demonstrating for him the type of self he is to be and giving him the adult support he needs to achieve the image they are setting for him. He certainly gives evidence that he is growing into that self at a remarkable rate. It would be interesting to see the home and the community in which this boy is growing up.

By contrast, the same week, the papers were full of the story of a 13-year-old girl and a male companion almost three times her age who were apprehended in Texas after they had committed four murders. This girl is a delinquent of the most serious kind and certainly should be treated as a delinquent because the acts she committed are crimes.

Although this girl represents a small percentage of youth and the boy represents by far the majority of youth, the criminal actions of the girl gain national attention while the boy and all the youth he typifies go publicly unnoticed. The publicity of the minority gives a distorted picture of juvenile delinquency when the delinquents are

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unequated with the youth who are well adjusted and positively oriented. This type of publicity tends to develop within us fears about the youth of our Nation, which are out of balance with reality. We begin to see in every form of childish misbehavior serious tendencies toward delinquency. Unfortunately, delinquency is on the increase, but certainly the majority of American youth are not delinquents and never will be.

The same holds true for Indian youth. Because of the rapid changes in Indian life, Indian youth are called upon to make great adjustments. Indian youth need adult help in formulating images of the selves they wish to become. They need adult models after which to pattern their behavior and adult support to achieve those images. When the Indian home fails to provide the proper models for imitation, the school must help to fill the gap. Unfortunately delinquency among Indian children may be on the increase, but certainly most Indian youth are not delinquents and never will be.

The few seriously disturbed and maladjusted youth who enroll in our schools cause us often to lose sight of the fact that they are a very small minority. Because their behavior is serious we become overly apprehensive and begin to see symptoms of delinquency in the kinds of behavior with which every family has to deal. Our own insecurity aggravates the situation, and often our own unintentional acts create misbehavior.

There is evidence that most school staffs are accelerating positive programs that are preventive of misbehavior. Restless, active boys, or girls for that matter, cooped up within four walls of a dormitory with nothing to do that is of interest to them will find activity, and under these conditions it is usually activity of the negative type.

For the past four years schools have been increasing the opportunities for healthy activities: arts and crafts activities; play and game activities; quiet activities such as reading and television. With a great variety

of opportunities for wholesome activities, each student can find something that meets his needs.

Certain schools have found that snack kitchens have had a positive effect on student behavior. This gives adolescents an opportunity to enjoy the company of the opposite sex in a home-like setting, because what is more interesting to teenagers than food. Feeding a boy friend is an age old and effective custom which has given us the adage "the way to a man's heart is through his stomach." Why not give the girls in our schools the opportunity to reach their men's hearts by this avenue instead of forcing them to meet surreptitiously behind the advisor's back. If you do not have small kitchens in your dormitories, why not try them to see how they lessen your boy-girl problems.

This increased emphasis on better understanding of youth is paying high dividends. Through workshops, summer college courses, and regular guidance meetings during the year, school staffs are increasing their understanding and upgrading their skills. Gradually, apprehension is decreasing as employee understanding of and skills in dealing with youth increase. Much of what was once considered unmanageable student behavior is now considered only the evidence of struggle in youth as they grow toward maturity. This struggle should alert us to the urgency for broader programs. Suggested reading for guidance meetings is **New Forms of Juvenile Delinquency: Their Origin, Prevention, and Treatment**. Report prepared by the Secretariat, United Nations. One copy has been sent to each Area Office.

There will always be few students whose problems are beyond the skills of the school staff. We will continue to seek the help these few need; when lacking the outside resources, we shall use our best judgment as to what to do in these individual cases. However, we will not let the few panic us to the point that we fail the many we can reach and help through strong instructional, guidance, and recreational programs.

11. A PREMISE ON DELINQUENCY

THREE is a great deal of concern and discussion about juvenile delinquency. We read about the mounting number of youth in conflict with the law; the increasing number of youth brought before the courts; the newspaper accounts of vandalism, yokings, the purse snatchings on our city streets; and the gang activities that sometimes lead to horrible violence and even murder.

We are horrified at what we read. We want to do all we can to prevent delinquency in the youth with whom we work, and we begin to alert ourselves to any tendencies and signs that might indicate that delinquency is on the increase among Indian youth.

Is Indian Youth Changing?

We observe that Indian youth generally speaking are much more aggressive and responsive by comparison than they were 10 or 20 years ago. Their experiences are broadening, their ability to communicate has increased, and they are becoming what we had hoped for, much more outgoing and responsive to their environment. We have worked during our whole career to pull English expression out of them, and now that we are getting it, we sometimes are at a loss to know how to channel it properly.

Shall we try to shove these children back into the unresponsive, shy, and quiet children of a generation ago; children who often were so bewildered by the strangeness of their environment, and lacking in language communication skills to the point that they had no alternative except to be quiet and try to guess what was expected of them?

Perhaps unconsciously we are trying to do this, and because Indian children today refuse to remain in their former narrow, quiet shells, we may incorrectly interpret this unwillingness as tendencies toward delinquency. Our interpretation frightens us and our interest in their well-being prompts us to action. Perhaps many times we think we see delinquency rearing its head when in

reality it isn't. We may be seeing the changes of a more responsive normal group of Indian children or we may be seeing only the normal problems of youth struggling to grow up. No doubt much that we talk about as signs of delinquency are no more than growing-up problems. On the other hand, we do find some Indian children becoming confused and rebellious in a world swiftly changing about them. We are fearful that trouble may be ahead for them, and we start searching for the causes.

What Are the Causes of Delinquency?

We find many Indian children in our schools from the lowest economic bracket, so we think we should lend our efforts to raising the economic level of Indians, which we should—but it is not a proven fact that poverty produces delinquency; therefore, even when we succeed in advancing the economic status of Indians we may not have made any noticeable inroads on preventing delinquency.

We say Indian children do not have anything constructive to do in their leisure time, so sometimes our single remedy for the prevention of delinquency is to lend our efforts to providing wholesome recreational programs, which by all means we should do, but, again, there are delinquents among those who have all the wholesome leisure-time opportunities they could possibly need or want.

We say that family breakdown contributes to delinquency which certainly it does, yet there are delinquents from the best of families. On the other hand, many upstanding people grew up in undesirable homes. And so it goes, like the blind man seeing the elephant for the first time, we seem to be seeing always a part of the elephant—his feet or his tail or his trunk. We have not been able to say actually that we have recognized the real elephant as it pertains to the causes of delinquency.

Prevention of Delinquency

Since many theories are extant with respect to the causes, may I add my opinion as

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to what constitutes the very heart of the delinquency problem and then my proposal of a basic approach that will strike at those causes. My premise is this—delinquents are delinquent because they do not act from a built-in code of behavior acceptable to society, and they fail to act from such a code for two reasons: either they have never developed such a code or, if they have developed a moral code, they do not have the courage to apply their code in the face of pressures and temptations. Based on this premise concerning the heart of the problem, my proposed remedy is threefold in nature (a) develop with children an understanding of a moral code acceptable to society to guide their actions, (b) help them form a right conscience, and (c) provide experiences that will strengthen their will power.

A large order you say. True it is a large order, and a difficult one, requiring the co-operation and the concerted efforts of the community, the church, the school, and the home. When most of the load falls on the school, as is often the case with many students in Federal schools, the task is even more difficult, but so is it difficult to advance the economic status of Indians. Therefore, if we patiently help Indian children interpret their actions in terms of their responsibilities for maintaining a moral environment, and if we patiently help them interpret their own experiences in terms of right and wrong, we are then little by little helping them develop and build into their personalities a moral code to guide their actions. If we help them interpret and analyze their behavior in terms of the right and wrong indicated in a moral code they are accepting, we assist them in developing a right conscience. Interpretation of deviate behavior may prove far more constructive in their development than enforcing or meting out predetermined punishment. This type of analysis no doubt will produce a degree of guilt

(to which some authorities may object); but, in my opinion, if the guilt feelings result from an individual's own analysis of his behavior, such feelings are not damaging but helpful in forming a conscience that will serve him in future situations. (Feeling uncomfortable when we have not had a bath prods us in the field of hygiene and there is nothing abnormal about feeling uncomfortable over no bath so long as we don't become overly concerned about cleanliness out of proportion to reality.)

Assisting children to develop their will power also requires patience and understanding and a faith in children. Will power does not spring full blown in any individual even though some individuals seem to have more of it than others. It results from an increment of experiences where deep inner satisfactions have been gained from withstanding pressures and overcoming temptation.

All of this may sound theoretical, preachy, and impossible; but I am willing to be so bold as to propose if we recognized lack of moral code, absence of right conscience, and lack of will to do the right as the heart of the delinquency problem, and if we directed all of our efforts to finding better ways to strike at the heart of the problem, we could, in my opinion, make real inroads on preventing delinquency.

If we lend our efforts toward these ends in Bureau schools, my prediction is that we will help Indian youth more quickly because our efforts are focused on each individual so that regardless of economics, recreation, home breakdown, and delinquency he meets in his environment, he becomes an individual who is far better equipped with the inner strength and resources needed to overcome the pitfalls surrounding him.

12. ARTS AND CRAFTS PLAIN NOT FANCY

"I GOT NO MONEY FOR STAMP. You give?" inquires Bahe, trying her "poor

me" technique.

"What's there to do around this place?" gripes Annie watching the weather take a turn for the worse.

"Susie is sitting in her room in one of her 'moods' again. What can we do to bring her out of herself?" queries a worried aide.

"Look what I made," boasts Grace, pulling a grimy bit of pink cloth from under her blouse. Vermillion embroidered cupids hold aloft garlands of purple and orange flowers, while two green and black bluebirds hover above looking uncertainly for a nest.

Babe needs money. We don't feel charitable.

Annie needs a hobby. So do we.

Susie needs therapy. By whom?

Grace needs direction. Where do we start?

Most dormitory staffs are familiar with these girls, though their names may not be Grace, Susie, or Annie. Their problems are the same: money, boredom, withdrawal, and unchanneled talent. Can an arts and crafts program help? We gave it a try.

In thinking through the problem, it was decided that the program must be based on realistic principles:

1. The program must help the student help himself.
2. It must be his program.
3. Production must be worthy of the effort.
4. Each article must be the best expression of each student.
5. Articles must be salable or usable.
6. The program must be self-sustaining financially.
7. The activity must be organized in conformity with regulations in 62 IAM 14.

While many of the girls did excellent embroidery and beadwork, it had no distinction as Indian arts and crafts. Because of expense and equipment, rug weaving was not practical at this time, though we had requests for rugs for wall hangings. A few girls started making their own designs for embroidery. With a capital outlay of \$10 borrowed from the house fund, remnants of calico, burlap, huck, yarn, embroidery floss,

and thread were purchased from bargain counters. Pine cones were gathered from the campus. The materials were displayed and issued according to individual tastes. A swatch of scarlet huck and embroidery floss returned as a striking set of place mats embroidered in gold, turquoise, and black. A bit of turquoise, burlap, and calico, with some leather shoelaces, came back an original, serviceable "tote" bag. A half yard of black burlap, bright red calico, and some yarn were returned as a striking wall hanging featuring two devil dancers. Leftover bits of yarn were turned into yarn Navajo dolls. Checked gingham became cross-stitched aprons. The pine cones glued on stands and decorated with beads and pipe cleaners were transformed into Christmas tree favors.

Starting with three or four interested girls, enthusiasm spread as finished items were displayed and money was received for work. Before the end of the year, 75 percent of the girls had finished at least one salable item. More than \$500 had been received in wages. Before Christmas and during the Birthday Pageant, sales were held and most articles sold.

No effort was made to advertise our wares. Most sales were made on an individual purchase basis. Advertising was done through grapevine tactics. Our standards were distinction and quality. Purchasers ranged from local campus employees to visitors from Holland and Indonesia.

A project was started making beaded shoulder patches for the Oregon National Guard. As soon as the work was begun, standards of uniformity had to be set up for quality of work and production. Finished work was judged on the following standards: (a) workmanship, (b) quality of design and color, and, (c) on originality.

The following rules were set up for production of any article:

1. Each girl chose her materials which were checked out to her.
2. Upon completion of a project, the article

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- was judged and a selling price set.
3. The cost of materials, plus a 5 percent charge for the revolving fund, was deducted from the gross price at time of sale. The student was paid the difference in cash.

As the program progressed, certain values emerged:

1. An appreciation of the opportunity to earn spending money
2. Pride in Indian culture
3. Increased self-confidence
4. Artistic self-expression
5. Worthwhile use of leisure time
6. Discovery of the pleasure of creative work.

Though the program is in its infancy, the carryover values are already in evidence. Several girls have purchased their own materials and started hope chests. A number of girls going on job training have taken materials with them and are sending the completed work back and checking out more to do in their spare time. Bahe now earns money. Annie is busy. Susie is blossoming with smiles. Grace is getting organized. The greatest reward comes with the proud pronouncement of a girl showing a finished piece of work: "Look what I did. It is good?" For enriched dormitory living, an arts and crafts program is good. An arts and crafts program will not solve all of the problems of out-of-school leisure hours, but it will help.

13. GUIDANCE, PLACEMENT, AND FOLLOWUP

JUSTIFICATION FOR THE PROGRAM of Indian education—or for any program of education—is placement. Placement may be defined as placing a student in a vocational or academic situation which will afford maximum opportunities for self-improvement, and for increasing his value to the community in which he lives.

Placing a high school graduate on a job or in an advanced learning situation as a

means to an end should be zealously avoided. Data concerning a student's background relative to his attitude, and his social, moral, emotional, physical, and intellectual characteristics should be given the most careful consideration before a decision is reached concerning how, where, and when the student is placed on the job or in an institution of higher learning.

Successful placement cannot be divorced from excellent guidance. Guidance and placement are concerned with all the mental, emotional, spiritual, and physical experiences the student will encounter in his quest for wholesome living in a very complex society. After the interests, skills, abilities, needs, aptitudes, and limitations of the student have been analyzed carefully—guidance has fulfilled, in great part, its obligation to the student's development. Whether success or failure follows the placement of a student in a given situation depends upon how closely placement personnel follow the findings and recommendations of skillfully trained counselors.

As an effective means of assisting its student graduates, the Phoenix Indian School has in operation a guidance and placement committee.

Committee Organization

The guidance and placement committee is composed of the superintendent; principal; heads of the guidance, academic, and home economics departments and of the vocational shops; and other qualified personnel who may be designated to work with the guidance and placement committee as a whole. A State Employment representative who works with minority groups also serves as a member of the committee.

A subcommittee was directed to draft a staffing pattern, and to formulate a constitution and by-laws to guide the activities of the guidance and placement committee members.

Specific placement responsibilities were placed upon personnel from the academic and home economics departments and the

vocational shops. Each department head, supported by a placement committee within his own department, was made responsible for the placement of graduates from his own department.

An extensive survey is prerequisite to successful placement. Delegating specific placement and followup duties to the head of the department concerned invites thorough investigation into every conceivable area of placement possibilities. Of more significant importance, it avoids duplication of effort by placement committee members and promotes excellent public relations. Assurance of successful placement of graduates depends largely on the good rapport established among the student, the employer, and the school.

Techniques Employed

One striking example which promoted excellent public relations is cited. The vocational subcommittee worked directly with the Arizona State Coordinator for Apprenticeship Programs. Members of the joint apprenticeship committee were extended invitations to attend a number of social functions at the school. Following the social amenities, members of the committee were conducted on a tour of the vocational shops at the school. Each committee member was requested to evaluate the vocational training and the various shop facilities for the purpose of aiding future apprenticeship aspirants. Representatives from management and labor expressed keen interest in the program of vocational education and offered constructive suggestions which resulted in better preparation of vocational students for successful apprenticeship.

Mechanics of Followup

Graduates from Phoenix Indian School are engaged in various pursuits in many sections of the country. Efforts are made to follow each graduate's rate of progress and adjustment for a period of four years or longer if the placement situation warrants. Personal contacts with many of the students are impossible, and the employment of add-

ed techniques becomes necessary.

Questionnaires, referrals, followup check-sheets, and letters are used to supplement personal contacts. Use of all these methods is essential in order to expedite the gathering of necessary and meaningful data for the publication of each annual placement and followup report. This report is compiled from information that has been recorded on a master progress sheet which contains pertinent information such as the student's name, residence address, and living conditions; the name, address, and telephone number of employer; the kind of employment, date of employment, base wage or salary, job satisfaction, and the rating of his work performance and adjustment. Identical methods are used to gather data from those Phoenix Indian School graduates who are pursuing courses in institutions of higher learning.

Effective followup cannot be separated from good placement. Little or no followup is dangerous and it invites retardation in the job adjustment of the high school graduate. Too much followup during work hours will often result in a deterioration of a wholesome relationship among the employer, the student, and the school.

The extent to which followup is needed should be determined by the characteristics of the individual concerned and by his rate of progress. If the high school student has had the advantages of working with personnel who are skilled in modern psychology, philosophy, and guidance techniques, and if he is permitted to exercise, to some degree, his own judgment in determining which trade or profession he wishes to enter in line with his training, ability, and interest, many of the problems which confront placement personnel will greatly diminish.

Objectives of Followup

The interest any school has in its graduates may be determined in large measure by the effectiveness of its followup program. Followup is most effective when it is used as a means to maintain in the graduate a

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constant, wholesome attitude towards his job and his employer, or towards his academic pursuits and instructors. Effective followup will encourage the student to seek and to use the best physical, social, religious, economic, and moral environment. Interest in the wholesome use of leisure time may be stimulated through followup. In addition, proper postgraduate contacts by appropriate school personnel will encourage the individ-

ual to understand the importance of thrift and the necessity for establishing a sound credit rating. Followup is most effective when appropriate techniques, skills, and timing are employed. Skillful training, skillful guidance, skillful placement, and skillful followup are indispensable aids to an individual's successful adjustment to the ever-increasing complexities of this astronautical age.

SUMMER PROGRAMS FOR INDIAN STUDENTS

1. THEN COMES MAY

APPROXIMATELY 13,000 Indian youths are enrolled in Bureau high schools, peripheral dormitories, and special programs. Unless we are able to improve our record this year over last year, a goodly number of these students will not return to any school next year.

These youths are enrolled in Bureau schools because of circumstances out of the ordinary. Some are enrolled because they come from isolated areas where their opportunity for schooling has been limited or non-existent. Some are enrolled because they have special educational needs that cannot be met elsewhere, and others are enrolled because special circumstances in their homes and communities make it necessary for them to have special care and guidance they would not have otherwise.

From September to May

From September to May these students live in a school and dormitory environment that is highly organized and supervised. Always, there are adults in their environment to challenge their interests, to teach them, to guide their leisure and out-of-school activities. Their days are filled with varied activities: classroom instruction, study, sports, music, handicraft activities, chores and work activities, clubs and hobby activities and the like, all fitted into daily and weekly schedules that are fairly well formalized into routines. Always, close at hand are adults to support and guide them during their waking hours.

From May to September

Then comes May, and most of these stu-

dents return to their home communities. If they return to a home community where there are ample opportunities for the proper ratio of work and leisure-time activities, plus the support and guidance of adults of character with an interest in youth, the summer vacation can provide a change that will be of great benefit to them. On the other hand, if they return to a community where there are no work opportunities, no wholesome leisure opportunities, and few adults to challenge their interests and to help them channel their energies into worthwhile activities, there is danger ahead.

Already school staffs, no doubt, are laying plans to develop summer employment opportunities for as many as possible of the older students. But what can be done for those who cannot find summer employment, and must return to communities that lack the resources to meet their needs? Can we, as school staffs, put on our thinking caps now to see if we can provide help to Indian communities to strengthen these resources for teenagers?

Use of Staff Talents

There was a time when it was necessary to use, or shall we say waste, the talents of school staff by having them do the annual housecleaning, the annual maintenance and painting of classrooms and dormitories, the mowing of lawns, the gathering and canning of the garden produce for winter table use, the mending and sewing to prepare for the opening of school in the fall. In fact, there was a time when teachers and other school staff were looked at with a critical eye if they thought they needed some time in the summer to plan the content of their

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teaching for the new term. The increased summer classroom planning and workshop activities in all Areas show that Bureau of Indian Affairs school administrators realize that what is taught and how well it is taught are the responsibilities of instructors rather than painting of buildings, and sewing and canning. Nevertheless, there still is a great deal of nonprofessional work done by professionally trained staff which leads to this question which we should, in my opinion, ask ourselves, "Are buildings more important than the children?" The answer is obvious—children are more important than buildings. The next question then is, "How can we deploy the talents of our school staff during the summer to bring greater benefit to the children?"

If you are a physical education teacher or a coach, would your talents benefit children if you could have the opportunity to organize softball leagues and basketball teams on some reservation rather than cleaning out the water tank, important as this is? If you were permitted to venture away from your school, would not such experience in Indian communities, in turn, be of benefit to you by enhancing your understanding of some of the problems and needs of students you will teach next year?

If you have a special talent or interest in music, what could you do in music? What could you do in an Indian community in choral, band, or orchestra work? Do you think you could make some of your love and appreciation of music rub off on children?

If you have a special interest in art and crafts or shop work or library work, what good could you do to benefit Indian youth? Suppose you are a special reading teacher, or a good storyteller, what could you do if you had the opportunity to outfit a station wagon weekly with library books and operate a temporary or makeshift traveling library?

As a member of the school staff, you have special talents and special interests of one kind or another. Your talents bring satis-

faction to you; and if permitted to do so, could you not use those talents during the summer months which would not only keep youth occupied but also would contribute to their advancement and emotional development?

Organization Is Necessary

Naturally, summer program work of the type hinted at in this discussion will require organization which becomes an administration responsibility. There would be problems involved in getting activities organized and going; it might be easier from an administration standpoint to paint the buildings or scrub the floors.

This is intended to provoke interest and ideas on the part of the staff about ways they could use their special talents during vacation months for the benefit of youth in communities lacking in resources, and to challenge the ingenuity of Bureau of Indian Affairs administrators to tap the resources of their staffs and organize the use of their talents into a summer program in Indian communities. Even though some ideas could not be carried out because of lack of funds and lack of staff, no doubt a wealth of ideas would result from which could be selected those that could be carried out.

This discussion is not meant to give the impression that clean and well-maintained buildings are not important to an effective educational program. They are, and the housekeeping shouldn't be neglected; but let's hope that custodial staff will be available this summer to carry that responsibility while the classroom, vocational, and dormitory instructional staffs use their talents to develop children and youth, even if it means following them to their home communities. If there isn't sufficient staff to carry both responsibilities; namely, to refurbish the plant and to work with youth, a choice, of course, must be made and in making the choice, let us ponder this question: Is it more important to preserve a building, or to preserve integrity and character in Indian youth?

2. EDUCATION EMPLOYEES: CATALYSTS FOR SUMMER- TIME YOUTH ACTIVITY

DURING THE COURSE of the school term a number of students find themselves involved in out-of-class activities. This is especially true in boarding schools. Some youngsters participate in youth organizations and club work such as Boy and Girl Scouts. Other students are engaged in intramural games or sports and many other types of activities.

The value of these extra-curricular activities are readily recognized. They aid immeasurably in developing basic values of citizenship and community service, physical fitness, and in the worthwhile use of leisure time. Many school personnel, as well as other Bureau employees, give unstintingly of their after-work hours to insure the success and continuation of these programs. Some positive attempts are being made to involve community organizations and local leaders in youth work. This is a desirable trend and certainly should be encouraged and exploited to the fullest.

It is true that the Indian Affairs Manual lays a considerable responsibility on the school employees for leadership in this type of work. For example, 62 IAM 6 spells out very clearly the provisions covering use of Government schools for community centers. Other examples are statements made throughout 62 IAM providing that the extra-curricular activities of the school program shall be of such nature that they may be continued throughout the summer months and perpetuated in later adult life. By the same token, the manual also provides that during the summer period when school is not in session the teachers and other school employees "should be given freedom from routine school matters to visit the reservations and acquaint themselves with the home conditions of students."

Bureau employees carry heavy work-loads during the school term. Although all are ex-

pected, in addition to their instructional responsibilities, to sponsor certain extracurricular activities, employees are often too busy to do as much as they would like in furthering their own particular interests and hobbies with students. The summer months, when classes are in recess, might be used to this end which would not only benefit youth but also would give employees a constructive outlet for their particular interests.

There are many ways an employee could pursue his special avocational interests and at the same time make a contribution to the wholesome development of Indian youth. No doubt many employees, like myself, believe that Scouting provides an excellent way of reaching boys and girls; and because of this conviction and the personal satisfaction derived from working with youth in Scout work, they are willing to spend considerable time in furthering these opportunities for boys and girls.

There are many ways employees might pursue their interests in Scouting during the summer recess. For example, the leader of a Scout troop at a boarding school might plan with his troop how they could assist in developing Scout activities in their home community during the summer; what they could do to prepare themselves to be summer leaders in all types of reservation activities for younger boys, etc. Planning how such activities could be carried out might be the subject of many worthwhile social meetings. Actually helping the boys to put their plans in action and supervising their summer leadership would be satisfying summer work for the person who sparked the idea. Or, an interested Scout enthusiast might request that he be permitted to spend a summer on the home reservation of some of his students. This would give him an opportunity to acquaint tribal leaders with the values of a good Scouting program, the procedures for initiating and developing an effective program, and to help them develop interest and leadership within their own group to carry on the program after he leaves at the end of

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the summer.

There is no end to what could be done in the Scouting program alone that would give Indian youth constructive outlets for their energies, if all interested employees pooled their skills and started the ball rolling during this summer.

It goes without saying that careful planning and the wholehearted backing of supervisors as well as the approval and support of Agency and Area officials to your ideas are necessary. How about letting your supervisor know some of your ideas for reaching Indian young people this summer, and your willingness to assist? You may be surprised to learn that your ideas are just what he has been looking for.

youth to earn from their own efforts. The Hamilton County Juvenile Court, as reported in the October 1, 1960, issue of **Hospitals**, the journal of the American Hospital Association, in cooperation with several of the local hospitals, is experimenting with a work therapy program. The program started in 1958 after juvenile authorities observed improved attitudes in a group of delinquent boys who were given income-producing work requiring only elementary skills. Since that time the program has been expanded with good results. This program without doubt struck the core of real need. If a work program is helpful in meeting the deep-seated needs of youth who have come in conflict with the law, why is it not a major way for meeting the needs of youth before they reach that point?

3. ADOLESCENTS NEED JOBS

ASK ANY PREADOLESCENT or adolescent what he wants most to do, and nine times out of ten he will say he wants to earn money. This interest, of course, ties into his growing desire for independence. As he progresses through the adolescent stage he tries desperately to achieve adult status. Earning money is a symbol of adult status, as well as a means to achieve a measure of independence.

In our society, do we recognize this interest and need of youth and provide sufficiently for them? Families economically able to do so provide allowances, but this is too closely related to dependence on parents to satisfy youth's deeper need for growing independence. Perhaps, if we reserved certain types of work in our society for youth and made this work available during out-of-school hours and vacation periods so that all youth who wished could have paying jobs, we might be surprised to see how far it would go toward eliminating delinquent activities of youth.

An interesting experiment which is being conducted in Cincinnati indicates that we may not be meeting the deep-seated desire of

The Branch of Education and the Branch of Plant Management collaborated last summer in planning and carrying out three pilot work projects at Federal schools. There is much maintenance and plant rehabilitation work that must be reserved for the summer months when school is not in session. Ordinarily, this has been done by adults. The Branch of Plant Management responded to the request of the Branch of Education for the need to provide work opportunities for Indian youth and these three pilot projects were planned jointly by the two Branches.

The Branch of Plant Management provided the work opportunities and the boys worked under the supervision of regular Plant Management foremen. The students were assigned to work in accordance with their abilities and physical maturity. They were expected to carry on their work in the same manner as any other workmen. The Branch of Education was responsible for the student workers during their non-working hours. It provided the recreation and guidance services for them. If an individual student did not measure up, which was the exception rather than the rule, school personnel helped to analyze the problem to see why, and if possible, to correct it. This

meant that both Plant Management personnel and Educational personnel had to work closely together.

According to reports, the actual work performance of practically all students surpassed expectations. In addition to the plant maintenance that was achieved, which is easily measurable, there were achievements in character maintenance of the boys. This latter type of achievement is difficult to measure. As the foreman counted the tiles the boys laid, he had no way of counting the boys he may have saved from delinquent behavior had they been unoccupied and bored all summer long. Although a well-laid tile floor is important, a well-formed character is more so. Also, the boy who puts in hours of labor in laying the tiles of a floor has a deeper appreciation for the need to take good care of the floor. Again, there is no way to measure the respect for property that grows out of such a project in which the boys participate. Yet, even more important than respect for property is the self-respect an adolescent boy gains from doing work which he considers "man's work." These are some of the many intangibles that can never be measured—only estimated. It is known, however, that all of the boys who worked on one particular project are back in school this year. This alone should tell us much about the value of such work projects.

It is hoped that a greater number of schools will become interested in a cooperative Education-Plant Management summer work program for Indian youth who have no other wage-earning work opportunities. However, to get the best results careful planning must precede the establishment of such a joint work program. There is the matter of spelling out responsibility of the two Branches: classification of student abilities, and assignment of work in terms of abilities, supervision on the job and off the job, and wages (to be decided with the help of the Branch of Personnel, etc.).

The Washington Office Branch of Education and the Branch of Plant Management

stand ready to make available their services in the planning and financing of such summer work programs.

4. SUMMERTIME JOURNEYS FOR INDIAN YOUTHS

LET'S TAKE A LOOK at educational possibilities in summertime travel for Indian children. I mean getting teachers to plan trips during the summer—trips of a week or two—with small groups of Indian boys and girls.

The values of travel don't have to be "sold" to the general public. There is widespread agreement that travel is educational at any age. Travel puts us into firsthand touch with new people, new places, and new ways of doing. It widens horizons in innumerable ways.

Indeed, travel has become an established feature of our culture. Enticing us to distant places, many magazines, Sunday newspapers, and other mass media regularly carry articles and advertisements on travel. When dad gets his week or two of vacation, the typical American child can count on the annual family trip. It has become one of the most enriching of summer experiences.

Perhaps we haven't thought much about it before. But lack of more extensive travel is one of the real shortages in Indian children's experience. They have experienced too little outside of their own limited world. So, to paraphrase a popular pun, if it's good for the country, why isn't it good for Indian children?

To get ready to take a trip involves considerable problem-solving which is richly educational. One asks, what shall we wear? We must consider kinds of places in which we will eat, sleep, and otherwise be seen. Our answers must involve considerations of styles and social acceptability. (One can't wear levis everywhere!) Answers involve inquiry into weather to be encountered. They involve anticipating types of activity to be

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undertaken—clothes for swimming, hiking, dancing, etc. Also we must give thought to luggage, weight, and finally our individual pocketbooks.

Too, one asks, where shall we go? This involves much factual exploration and weighing of alternatives. (We might note, incidentally, that when people begin to consider alternatives, they are on the way to progress!)

How far is it, or how far shall we go? How far can we afford to go? Can one go by bus? By train? By plane? For how much in each case? What is there to see when we get there? What is there to do? How much time would one want to "see the sights?"

Just what would we like most to do? Swim? Fish? Go boating? Hike? See scenery or cities?

Like the boatowner who spends much of his winter overhauling his gear or the fisherman who works all winter on his flies, much of the fun of the traveler is being involved in the pretravel planning and posttravel recollections.

In the planning of detailed arrangements, other problems to be solved open new economic vistas. How much money is needed? For food? For overnight accommodations? For transportation, tips, et cetera? For personal spending? In short, how can we budget?

How can we economize and practice thrift? For example, shall we camp out part of the time? Carry our own food? Stay in hotels or motels? Or perhaps solicit accommodations through other channels such as civic groups, churches, and the like? Perhaps we might get help that would enable us to see actual homelife of people in distant places.

How might we earn the necessary cash? Individually or through pooling? How much can we reasonably expect to earn and save in the early summer months before we take off? What creative thinking can we devote to this aspect of our problem?

Finally, how about anticipating emergen-

cies? (Excellent experience in management and foresight!) What if someone becomes ill on the trip? Or gets hurt? Or misbehaves? How about insurance? What preliminary health examinations or health precautions need to be considered?

There are, of course, all sorts of organization and management details, only some of which involve the students who might participate. How many shall go? Boys or girls? What age limits? How many adult chaperones? (Just to talk about chaperones is well worth trying the project!) When shall we plan to go?

Shall such travel be authorized for teachers by the Area Office? Shall the teacher escorts be allowed per diem? Can they use Government vehicles? And so on and so on.

This brief list of questions might suggest that for anyone who doesn't want to go, or doesn't see the rewarding educational possibilities, there is an endless list of alibis. On the other hand, these few suggested questions for study by you and the student group, indicate a great variety of meaningful learnings inherent in planning a summertime journey for some Indian boys or girls in your community or your school.

Such a project would undoubtedly have many additional intangible outcomes like putting teachers into closer personal relationships with pupils, arousing interest and cooperation of parents in working with you, even creating reading readiness and better academic understanding by pupils in the fall when school reopens. A followup study of values would be interesting.

If we are to carry out our task of exposing Indian children to good features of our culture, some of us might well spend part of the summer on summertime travel with Indian children. But if a trip of a week or two seems like too much to bite off at first, how about considering several one- or two-day field trips with children who would like to participate?

In conclusion, why don't you and your fellow workers devote some of your faculty

meetings to pursuing the subject of planning summertime journeys for Indian youth?

5. SUMMER BACK HOME

AT THE END of the school year in May, hundreds of Indian boys and girls return from boarding schools to their home communities for the long vacation period. This is a joyous occasion for both students and parents. Students re-establish relationships with the members of their families, especially younger brothers and sisters who may have forgotten them during their absence. Special attention centers around the students and they experience a feeling of maturity and importance as the family members listen attentively to their reports on what they did at school. At least temporarily, they assume the roles of specially privileged individuals. This they enjoy.

Soon, however, the students cease to be the center of attention; routine family living begins and these children are expected to fit into the established pattern. They must reaccept the existing family living arrangements, reassume responsibility for their share of work and chores, and reorient themselves to parental controls.

Children Need Help

Sometimes this readjustment is not easy. Few families have sufficient work to fill the long days, and opportunities for full- or part-time employment are almost nonexistent. The students begin to miss the full, well-organized programs of the boarding school and the excitement of living with a large group. Finally boredom sets in and they seek ways to relieve the monotony of isolated living. Some may find appropriate and profitable ways to use their time. Some parents will be sensitive to the situation and try to make provisions for relieving it. Unfortunately, there will be a large number of students whose talents and energies will not be channeled into challenging and satisfying activities and the impact of idleness and

lack of direction may show up in delinquent or predelinquent behavior. These students may be headed for trouble. Minor or serious? No one knows.

Do we teachers who live and work in those communities to which the boys and girls return have any obligation to them? I feel sure that you will say we do have a responsibility to help these youngsters. No doubt, you will say ways must be found to involve them in creative and constructive activities. How? In some cases almost insurmountable problems seem to block the way. Returning students do not live in compact little villages where you can get them together on a few minutes' notice. They live in scattered, isolated, small groups with inadequate roads and transportation facilities. To transport them to a centrally located place such as the day school will be costly in terms of money. Too, in some instances parental attitude may be a hinderance rather than an asset to a constructive community program.

These are some of the obstacles facing teachers in the day schools. While they are formidable, we dare not think they cannot be surmounted. We must take the first step, for often it is the first step that leads the way out of the wilderness.

Some Possible Approaches

As a possible first step the school could be used as an activity center two or three times a week with children transported by bus. On these days children could engage in numerous activities: arts and crafts, assorted games, and individual hobbies.

The arts and crafts center could be in a room where those interested could find the materials with which to work. When the program is under way, children may be encouraged to bring materials from their homes or surroundings. In this center children could work on individual hobbies if they so desired. Students home from boarding school could be given a measure of responsibility by being charged with seeing that certain basic materials needed in the

program are always available.

In addition to the arts and crafts program the children could engage in a variety of organized games and recreational activities. Some games and activities could be competitive and some noncompetitive, with every child who so desires having an opportunity to participate. These games may include volleyball, basketball, relay races, hiking, rope jumping, square dancing, folk dancing, and many others. Activities such as these could afford many opportunities for boarding school students to exert leadership and develop poise. Perhaps periodically, the group could journey to another activity center or day school for folk dancing, athletics, demonstrations, dramatics, or for just a day of fun.

Another possible approach could be the use of mobile libraries emanating from the activity center. Teachers skilled in the art of storytelling could visit isolated villages once a week, and perhaps at some designated place, meet students and parents so that they might choose books of interest for pleasure reading. Interested youngsters could listen to the teachers read or relate stories of great interest and appeal. Books might be left with boarding school students who could read, and interpret if necessary, stories that appeal to children or adults in the community. There might be designated times during the week for this activity.

There are undoubtedly many other school organized activities that will prove valuable in providing constructive summer programs for these youth. In the development of such programs we, the Bureau teachers in the small communities, might ask ourselves these questions: Can we through careful planning serve as a first-line source of help to these young people? Is it the school's responsibility to provide summer programs that will make the students' summer at home a period for continuing educational growth—a time for developing their skills and talents? Is it a time for wholesome recreation and fun? Can we use this oppor-

tunity to help students overcome any educational deficiencies that keep them from competing favorably with other students of comparable ages? If our answer is yes to each of these questions we are off to a start in the right direction.

6. LET'S READ THIS SUMMER

THE TWENTIETH CENTURY has been called the children's century. It is true much progress has been made in providing for their welfare, but there are still many areas that must have more attention. One urgent and vexing problem facing the Bureau of Indian Affairs is how to fill the unnatural gap caused by Indian school children having to spend at least three months of the year in idleness. Of course, many of the older students will be able to get employment. But what about the hundreds who will not?

The day when the home can find work to occupy the time of all children is past. The school term with a summer recess was first established to meet the demands of an agricultural society. Children were needed to help put the crops in and to harvest them. Then they went to school in the winter when they could not work on the farm. Even today when the machinery has replaced the children in agriculture and labor laws protect them from industrial exploitation, too little is being done to fill the void in their lives caused by the three months' idleness.

This summer in hundreds of small Indian communities many children will be faced with endless days of idleness. The Indian way of life, where children were busy all the time, has changed too. There is no more hunting the deer and the buffalo to replenish the family larder, no more helping with the weaving of the cloth or tanning of the hides for the family apparel. Indian youngsters need help in filling the void caused by the three months they must spend in idleness.

Parents, teachers, administrators, and council groups have been concerned with the problem. All of them know what happens to idle brains and hands. Children become bored and look for something to do, whether it be constructive or otherwise. One child alone with nothing to do may not be too serious a problem. But he does not remain alone; he goes looking for company. Several idle brains and hands multiply the danger potential. Now what can the teacher in the Indian community do to help the children make the summer months interesting, profitable, and enjoyable? There are innumerable projects the teacher, the parents, and the community might launch, but here only one such idea—a summer reading program—will be discussed. Other projects will be discussed in succeeding issues.

The teacher knows those children in his own classroom who need help in developing reading skills. He also knows that some of those returning from boarding school need help in strengthening their reading skills. Even the high school students could use some instruction. So helping children become better readers could be a stimulating project. In addition to learning how to read, children need to learn to read. Generally speaking, not enough people are reading widely today. Too, many children in school read only what is required. They read textbook assignments; they read newspapers, magazines, and library books to make special class reports. Too few know the joy of reading for pleasure. This summer could be an opportunity for a teacher to help them learn to read for personal fulfillment as well as to teach them the skills of reading.

There are many ways to initiate a program such as this and each individual who is interested would have to study his own community. The operation of parents and the reservation principal would be necessary. Support from tribal groups would, indeed, lend prestige to any undertaking.

The teacher might set up certain questions and when he had the answers he would

be well on the way to having his program planned. Probably the answers will not be easy to come by and time and patience will be necessary. Let us list some questions to give direction to the teacher's thinking:

1. Do children in this community really need something to do during the summer months?
2. Would a reading program be profitable and possible?
3. What children might be interested in spending some time at school each day?
4. How much time can I allot to this activity?
5. What additional reading materials will I need to carry out a good program?
6. How will I get the materials?
7. What help can I expect from the reservation principal's office?
8. Will this activity conflict with any other activity planned for the children?

If the answers to the above questions are such that the teacher feels a reading program should be tried in his community, then the detailed planning can be done. Each situation will call for different measures. Again some questions may be asked:

1. How can I get the children to come the first time?
2. What would be the best organization to use?
3. What kind of reading activities shall I stress?
4. How much time should I spend on formal reading instruction?

Many of these answers will come only after the project has been started, and as all teachers know plans will have to be revised as needs change.

Perhaps, on the first day the classroom is opened, some children may be reluctant to come in. However, it is easy to imagine that if there are some interesting reading opportunities available, the message will get around and the number of children will increase.

Not only could the teacher who lives in the community carry out this type of pro-

gram, but the teachers who live at the boarding schools could participate in such a program in communities which are easily accessible to the boarding school. If this is the children's century, let us not lose any of the progress which has been made by failing to contribute our best efforts to solving the problem of idle days. There must be many ways we as Bureau educators can contribute. What do you think should be done? Why not discuss your ideas with others who are interested?

7. SUMMER PROGRAMS AND THE DROPOUT PROBLEM

SEVEN YEARS AGO (1957), school administrators and Indian leaders, assembled at Intermountain, examined the dropout problem in Bureau schools. The findings at that time showed that the dropout rate of Indian students was approximately 50 percent greater than the national average. Instead of trying to explain this situation away, members of the group planned to strike hard at its causes. Their determination was voiced in two succinct statements: High school is not enough! We cannot afford to lose this generation!

Indian leaders, when they returned to their reservations, continued to emphasize with renewed vigor the importance of education in the life of today's Indian people. Many of them have carefully watched the dropout rate; have worked with the parents and the dropout student to get him back in school; have visited schools to show their interest in education; have talked with students in school to encourage them to continue their education; have worked with school officials to give special guidance and encouragement to the students who are having difficulty with school life; and have encouraged the tribal members to carry on a variety of activities that will further the interest of parents and youth in education.

The State supervisors of Indian education

also are looking at the dropout rate of Indian children in public schools. They, too, are emphasizing action on the part of Indian parents, the school community, and school officials that will improve public school holding power for Indian youth. Bureau school officials looking at the causes behind the school dropout problem have experimented with programs that will increase school holding power. Greater attention is being given to improvement of English and reading instruction; guidance and counseling; improvement of classroom materials and supplies to provide a better learning laboratory; improvement of dormitories to make them more liveable; and postponement of terminal vocational instruction to higher levels, thus freeing a greater time block for general education, which includes practical arts as well as greater emphasis on English. There also has been some small breakthrough in securing services in other disciplines to supplement, extend, and support the efforts of the school staff.

Although the dropout problem has not been solved to anyone's satisfaction, it is encouraging to note that Bureau schools are gradually increasing their holding power. The progress that is beginning to show cannot be attributed to any one program or any one person. It results from the composite effects of all programs.

However, very important activities that, without question, have had a positive effect on school holding power are the summer work programs carried out on a limited scale the past two summers. These work programs have met a very real need of teenage youth since all youth of this age are seeking adult status and are struggling to be independent. Doing a man's work gives youth a feeling of adult status, and earning wages for their efforts meets their growing need for independence. In addition to these two deep-seated values of work for youth, most Indian youth in Bureau of Indian Affairs schools lack spending money, funds for clothing, and funds to participate in the many small acti-

vities that mean everything to high school students. It is difficult to know how many students find a school situation intolerable to the point where they refuse to face it because they do not have clothes for a junior prom or funds for the class ring or spending money to take their girl to the movies. Judged by adult standards, these are insignificant as compared to the value of schooling. To the teenager who has to pretend he did not want a ring because he could not buy it, this is serious; and to the boy who has lost his girl to the other fellow who had the change for a movie ticket, this is a catastrophe.

This leads to the question: What can we do about it? We can do two things, at least. First, we can use all the imagination at our command to find ways, even if we have to invent them, for youth to earn money. Second, we can, in discussion with Indian parents, indirectly guide them to see the need and wisdom to help their children financially if they possibly can.

The opportunities for cooperative work programs with other branches and with the tribes have by no means been completely exhausted. All Bureau employees and tribal leaders are urged to develop more work opportunities this summer for Indian youth. The dropout you salvage or prevent through this program may be a future John Glenn, a Pasteur, or a modern Chief Joseph.

Therefore, if you have a good plan but for any reason you cannot get it into operation, please advise this office. There is a possibility that we may be able to help you salvage your Glenns, Pasteurs, and Josephs.

8. THE WORLD IS AS WIDE AS WE MAKE IT

THE community described will be familiar to many people. It is not necessarily a typical Indian community, yet it has a number of counterparts in areas of Indian population.

It is an isolated community located on an Indian reservation. Its people are poor. They have little education and less economic opportunity. In some homes parental misconduct and consequent child neglect add to the problems of poverty, illiteracy, and isolation.

A school with both elementary and high school grades is located in this community. The children who live near enough to walk or to come short distances on the bus attend the school on a day basis. Those who live farther away stay at the school during the school term. No children remain at the school in the summer. A few students attend off-reservation schools and come home for the summer vacation.

In considering a summer program for the high school students, the local resources would be explored first, and these questions answered: Can one dormitory and the dining room be kept in operation for five weeks during the summer? Will those of the school staff who can contribute to this program arrange their vacation plans so that they will be on duty during this 5-week period? Will others be available the rest of the time to carry on some activities which do not require a great deal of formal organization? Can a school bus and driver be available during the summer?

If these questions are answered affirmatively (and let's assume they are) the planning of the summer program can begin.

In this situation, the dormitory can be used to house those who live too far to commute, those living nearby in undesirable home situations (they need to get away from it all for a time, don't they?), and the visitors.

With a little adult guidance, a few adult suggestions, and a knowledge of what facilities will be available, the high school students will have many suggestions to make and will be able to formulate a summer program.

Many more ideas than those listed below will come from the group. Some of the suggestions which will require more time and

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organization might be accepted for the 5-week period, and others for individual and small-group activity during the remainder of the summer.

The students, no doubt, will suggest some of the following activities:

1. Shop instruction and shop privileges on an informal basis which will permit the boys and girls to make small items of their own choosing
2. Home economics instruction and laboratory privileges which will permit boys and girls to do and to learn things for which there is not time in the regular school program
3. A music program: glee club, mixed chorus, music appreciation, etc.
4. A study of the resources and problems of the reservation (Visits to and from the tribal council and agency employees)
5. A recreation program operated by the high school students for the younger children
6. Athletic events
7. Visits to historical locations and to national and state parks and forests
8. An art class and art exhibit
9. A crafts class and exhibit (The older people can help greatly with this.)
10. A community carnival, bazaar, or fair
11. Square dance instruction and weekly dances
12. A visit to the Area Office and a meal in a restaurant
13. A week's camping trip for the boys and one for the girls
14. A visit to a college campus, a business school, or a vocational school where Indian students are enrolled
15. A visit to the State Capitol
16. A reading club, a drama club, a geology club, etc.
17. A week's youth meeting which would permit inviting about 12 Indian high school students from other reservations or a group of public school students as guests of the local students, who would

plan the program and do the work.

If only a very few of these could be carried out with much of the responsibility placed on the students, we should all have our eyes opened as to how well they can accept responsibility and how responsible they can perform. And **their** planning and **their** following the rules **they** have made can make for a most enjoyable summer.

For instance, if the group knows that it can have a day's trip to a nearby national park and must plan and carry out all the arrangements, it will (a) learn as much as possible about the park in advance of the trip (This will require reading of material on hand, writing for additional material, and much discussion); (b) set a time schedule and decide on the route; (c) pack lunches or make other arrangements for meals; (d) write ahead to make arrangements for special guide service or other accommodations for the group; and (e) select its own leaders and spokesmen and agree on behavior standards and controls.

This article was written with one community in mind. We believe it can be adapted to many communities and many school situations.

It cannot be done at all well without the enthusiastic participation and understanding of the people who will work with the students.

And what good will it do? It may keep one youngster, or a dozen, out of trouble which could mar a whole life or the lives of several youngsters. It may make one child, or a dozen, wake up to the fact that learning is a lifetime process, not one limited to one school building or to a few school years. It should let all the students know that the world is as wide as they want to make it or as narrow as they will accept it. It should provide many of those experiences we all want the Indian children to have. It should give the staff an opportunity to experience the joy of working with smaller groups of students under less formal conditions than are permissible during the regular school

year—an opportunity to demonstrate their own special skills and talents in working with young people.

9. SUMMER PROGRAM TIME IS APPROACHING

THE BUREAU began its summer program work in 1960. Since that time summer programs have grown in terms of the scope of activities carried on and in the number of children the programs have reached. Although it has not been possible to measure accurately in objective terms the effects of these various programs, subjective measurements indicate that summer activities have contributed to improvement of school attendance, reduction of behavior problems, and to greater community interest in youth.

It is hoped that the programs planned by the various Areas and Agencies for this coming summer can be even broader in scope, and that an increased number of children will be served by worthwhile programs.

Although the emphasis this coming summer will be on academic programs of various types, student work programs, camping programs, and a great variety of other types of programs similar to those conducted last year will be carried on.

Three new summer student projects will be initiated this year (1963). A selective and limited number of high school student council officers, accompanied by teachers or counselors, will study government in operation in Washington for one week. The youth will follow a planned study outline as they observe government in action at the national level. It then will be their responsibility to convey to the student body of their respective schools the information they have gained from this experience.

The Portland Area is starting a work-camp project. Work teams under camp conditions will do construction work related to fire towers and such other facilities as need repair or construction in forest areas. The

work activities of these youth will be under the supervision of a foreman from Plant Management, and the recreation-study-guidance activities will be the responsibility of the Branch of Education.

Last year a summer kindergarten program was quite successful at the Choctaw Agency in Mississippi. Teachers with the help of one or two paid high school student aids carried on these activities for 4-, 5-, and 6-year-olds.

The Bureau has never had sufficient classroom space nor funds to provide a kindergarten program during the regular school term. Summer kindergarten programs can serve to fill this need. By carrying on these activities during the summer when classrooms would be vacant otherwise, space is no problem.

In two summers, on a full-day basis, 4- and 5-year-olds could get almost the equivalent of a year's kindergarten work as it is usually carried on; namely on a half-day basis. A full day, well planned with plenty of rest and active play activities interspersed with more controlled work in a classroom, need not be physically and mentally tiring to small children. If the kindergarten is conducted for a full day; however, care must be given to a balanced program that will not unduly stimulate and tire these small children.

There is also a great deal of value to employing high school students as teacher aids. This gives these students experience with a good teacher which improves their own knowledge and use of English as well as provides an opportunity to earn money. Some of them, no doubt, will become interested in teaching and if they enroll in teacher education courses, this summer experience will be invaluable to them.

If any Bureau teacher after reading this article becomes interested in getting 10 or 15 children together to form a summer kindergarten class, make your interests known to your principal. There still may be an opportunity to employ a student aid or

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two to help you. You could have a challenging experience, and if you are so inclined you could do some private study and research in the teaching of English to beginners.

Camping activities also are being expanded this year. There is no better way to reach youth than in an informal camp atmosphere. Much learning also takes place because the great outdoors is a wonderful classroom. If you enjoy camping and would like to gather together a small group of boys or girls and take them on a camping trip, you, too, should make your interests known to your supervisor. A counselor or teacher-adviser could also learn much about behavior problems and how to meet them if he or she planned a research-study project carried out in a camping situation.

What hobbies do you have—photography, sewing, drama, woodworking, leathercraft, gardening, square dancing, athletics, music, or art? How about organizing a group of children or youth and this summer making

fellow hobbyists of them?

Perhaps you have been teaching in a school removed from a reservation setting. A summer hobby program carried on by you at the reservation where some of your students live would provide a worthwhile experience for you—and for them. If your interests run in the direction of a summer reservation program of some type, make your interests known.

By this time, no doubt, you have guessed that the purpose of this discussion is to challenge you to take part in a summer program of some kind, if at all possible. We would like to interest you further in making the activity you do engage in a research or study project, to determine what effects your summer work had on the children with whom you work and what you yourself gained from the experience. We suggest that you record your findings and report them to us along with your suggestions and ideas for future summer program projects. Your report will be most helpful in planning for the future.

10

ADULT EDUCATION PROGRAMS

1. EDUCATION COMES LATE

MANY ADULT INDIANS have had no formal education. Some of them, not realizing the values of an education, passed up the opportunities they may have had in their youth. Many others did not even have the opportunity to go to school.

Need for an Educational Program

Because of the rapid growth in Indian population and the lack of resources on the reservation to support this increase, many adult Indians are faced with seeking newer job opportunities both at home and away from their reservations. They must learn not only newer job skills but newer ways of living as well.

Most Indians want the advantages of modern life for themselves and their children. They see others living at higher standards, with better housing, better health, better jobs, greater resources, and greater opportunities. They realize that education is the key to these better things. They realize that education passed them by in their youth, and as a result their progress is blocked by illiteracy and insufficient education to function in a rapidly changing world. They know they do not have the educational tools to live at adequate standards in today's world.

To learn newer ways and skills, adult Indians need to expand their experience and environment. They need to enlarge their understandings of such things as (a) newer responsibilities required in caring for and educating their children, (b) newer understandings of the importance of time and money managements, (c) newer civic and social responsibilities required of them as citizens, and (d) newer ways of earning a

livelihood for themselves and their families.

When educationally disadvantaged Indian adults leave their reservation they cannot take full advantage of services generally accepted or taken for granted by others. They do not take full advantage of available community services such as health services, employment services, educational services, and vocational rehabilitation services because they do not understand what services are provided, the true value of such services, or how to avail themselves of them.

Many Indians, because of educational handicaps, cannot discharge their civic responsibilities in a non-Indian community. Many do not vote because they do not understand the system of secret ballot as a means of expressing their voice in public affairs. Their traditional way of expressing their opinion, although democratic, was not by secret ballot. Common agreement was usually reached by means of long periods of discussion with time for give and take until there was a unanimous group decision. Therefore, expressing opinions independently as individuals by secret ballot out of group context is new to many Indians. Some are fearful lest they may be agreeing to something detrimental to Indian welfare. This, of course, stems from lack of understanding and experience with the system of secret ballot.

Indian parents want their children to go to school. What they do not realize, though, is that the children must have a feeling of belonging in school. Children must feel that they are accepted by the non-Indian students. To attain this feeling certain standards of dress, personal cleanliness, and behavior are expected. It may not seem of momentous importance to the parent that

his child eat at the lunch room, but it may be the deciding factor in a child's decision to remain in school.

Indians themselves recognize the need for education for themselves and their children. They know they must be educated in order to accept their responsibilities equally with other citizens. Consequently, for several years they have insisted on good educational opportunities for their children. Now, many groups have requested education for adult members of their tribes. The Bureau and the Congress are taking seriously their request and are planning with them a program to advance their educational level. The program will be carried on first at Seminole (Florida), Papago, Ft. Hall, Turtle Mountain, and Rosebud and will be expanded to other groups later.

Basic Principles of the Program

An adult program of education must be acceptable to the people themselves. The Indian adults must see in the program things that will help them solve their daily problems. Therefore, the program must begin with the immediate concerns of individuals in the group; and from these lead, step by step, into more advanced and broader learnings. At the same time, interest must be sustained. The teacher will see, or should see, this step-by-step process which begins with the simple learnings and proceeds at the rate of the learner to more advanced steps. However, it cannot be taken for granted that the learner will understand the gradual step-by-step learning process. Herein lies the skill of the teacher. To keep the learner motivated, through the tedious initial learnings until those learnings approach the adult's interest level, requires great teaching skill. Constantly, the teacher must be aware of the great gap between initial learnings and adult interest and find ways to bridge that gap.

Measured in time, an initial learning which begins with acquiring a simple skill may be a considerable distance from the individual's idea of his need. The individual

who says he wants to learn to write his name so that he can carry on his business is beginning a learning venture that can lead to other learning opportunities for him. He will learn the difference in writing his name to tell someone who he is from the writing of his name to show willingness to assume certain responsibilities. For example, he will eventually understand that when he signs an application he is stating that what he said is true; when he places his signature on a contract, he is stating that he will be responsible for its terms. Being able to form the letters of his name is the first step. Understanding and taking the responsibility for what he signs are great steps forward, and steps that are important in learning to manage his own affairs.

The ability to speak, read, and write English are basic tools to effective living in our society. Teaching the meaning of words, not the words themselves, is important. Every experience gives meaning to words related to the experience. Therefore, the English vocabulary taught should be geared to the everyday experiences of the people. Approaches, methods of teaching, and materials used with children ordinarily will not sustain the interest of adults to the point where they will have sufficient skill in the use of English to meet the demands in everyday living. Commercial reading material generally will not meet the interest and needs of the learner. Some may be easily adapted. It will be necessary often for teachers or others to prepare material suited to the interests and capabilities of the specific groups.

An adult education program should be flexible to allow the teacher to exercise judgment in planning for different needs, yet sufficiently fixed to assure step-by-step progress toward higher achievement. Therefore, the program should be definitely planned yet flexible enough to meet the minds of adults.

Evaluation is an important factor. The situation should be determined at the begin-

ning of the program and a continuous evaluation made of it as it goes along. This evaluation will determine if the basic skills are being acquired and if they are being used in real everyday experiences. (Are people obeying road signs and traffic signals they learned?) A record of evaluations will provide needed information for improvement and revision of the present program or any programs which may follow.

This evaluation should be undertaken with those being taught. They are working people. Many will attend class after having done a day's work so it is necessary for each to know he is learning something that will aid him immediately. The Seminole who has picked tomatoes all day will lose interest if he does not have that satisfaction.

Education is coming late to many adult Indians. It is, therefore, extremely important that the program be well planned and well carried out. It should be a program that will help adult Indians meet the problem of daily living. It should give them the basic skills they need to work with others in a modern world.

2. THE OLD MAN'S TEACHER

RECENTLY a group of adult Indian men and women were struggling with the mysteries of reading and writing the English language when an elderly man, aiding himself with a cane, entered and sat down in the rear of the room. As the lesson progressed the old gentleman became increasingly interested, almost to the point of excitement. When the lesson was over he came forward and told the teacher, through an interpreter, that he had been sent as a representative of his village some four or five miles distant. He had walked all this way to ask that the "old man's" teacher be sent to their village.

A pilot program of adult education had been initiated by the Bureau of Indian Affairs a year before and the basic need may

be restated briefly. Between forty and fifty million adult Americans are engaged today in some sort of formal learning activity. Therefore, the educational gap between disadvantaged adult Indians and the general public will constantly widen, rather than close, unless they also have access to educational opportunity.

It is not the purpose of this report to claim that the program has proved itself already to be an unqualified success; it is still far too early to make judgments of that kind, one way or the other. But incidents such as described in the opening paragraph have shown that many Indian adults in various localities have demonstrated a keen and tenacious desire to learn.

Some basic findings are beginning to emerge from the pilot program. One is that while it is highly important that responsible bodies such as tribal councils approve a program of adult education, neither they nor anyone else can commit an individual adult to a program of learning. The desire to learn must reside in the individual himself and must spring from his conviction that he, as a person, will be better for it. Another finding is that the degree of acceptance of adult education may vary considerably from community to community.

Factors which typically inhibit adults the world over from participating in programs of fundamental education are (a) lack of belief that the program will help them, (b) reluctance to identify themselves as needing help, and (c) lack of confidence in their own ability to learn. Apparently these inhibiting factors are not as strong in some of our Indian communities as in others. In a community where the great majority of adults cannot read or write English and speak or understand it only imperfectly, one is not embarrassed to admit that he cannot do these things. Furthermore, the desire to attain at least a basic level of literacy is very strong in many of these individuals. Persons who have had an opportunity to observe them have been amazed at the persistence

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and good spirit with which they tackle a task which is formidable, to say the least.

In those communities where most of the adults have had little schooling, the problems are more complex. Here, frequently, the greatest interest has been found among those persons who have completed at least the elementary grades. They, in their more mature years, have felt the need for more education and are willing to spend time and effort to get it. Probably the most difficult problem of all exists with those persons who attended school for a few years, perhaps three, four, or five, and then for one reason or another discontinued their schooling. They are in a quite different situation from the person who never had a chance to get to school at all. The factors which caused them to drop out of school may still be operating and the initial thrill of learning has been dissipated. It is hard to achieve motivation under such conditions.

Adult education workers in such communities are working patiently to find the specifically felt needs of individual adults; these are the keys to establishing satisfactory learning situations. Slowly but increasingly they are finding some of these keys. In one community the teachers learned that a half dozen Indian women were concerned about being overweight—an anxiety common to the sisterhood of middle-aged American women of the present era. The teachers realized that this interest was fraught with learning opportunity. Now this group is exploring together the subjects of diet, general health, and personal grooming. While it was not a primary objective, it is inevitable that improved language skills will be an added result of this study. Another community used last November's elections for motivating a series of group meetings on citizenship and the exercise of the right of franchise.

It is also becoming apparent that the laws of learning and the principles of good teaching do not differ much whether the learners be children or adults. It is necessary, of course, if the learning situation is one in-

volving basic literacy training, to adjust materials and content to a primary level of difficulty but an adult level of concept and interest. This, it has been learned, is not quite as difficult as it sounds. But the teacher will need to know primary methods in teaching reading to adults as he would with any other beginners. The creation and adaptation of learning materials at the learner's level is a never-ending task, but with imagination and resourcefulness it can be, and is being done.

At the time this is being written (1957), between 150 and 200 Indian adults are participating in the adult education program in more or less formal learning activities. Many more are included in less formal group activities. But it is felt that much more important than any quantitative "head counting" is a qualitative consideration of the effects of new learnings in the lives of older individuals.

3. HELPING THE "TEN MILLION"

TWO "magic" numbers can contribute to our understanding of adult education in America today. The first is **fifty million**—the estimated number of adults in America who, after their school days are over, are "continuing" their education. The second is **ten million**—the number of adult Americans reported by the Bureau of the Census as being "functionally illiterate." The first figure has been called "dramatic"; the second has been termed "a national disgrace." Perhaps the most significant fact about them is that they do not overlap very much. Relatively few of the functionally illiterate are participating in any program of educational self-improvement.

The scope and variety of learning activities of the **fifty million** is amazing and they are being carried on within the most loosely knit organizational framework imaginable. Some of the agencies engaged in adult edu-

cation are public school systems, agricultural departments, university extension branches, private correspondence schools, educational radio and television, libraries, parent-teacher associations, churches, business and industry, labor unions, health and welfare agencies, and the armed forces. This helter-skelter type of mushroom growth is not surprising. It has come about in response to an insistent demand for learning by adults who have more leisure time than their ancestors did, and who must continuously adjust to an increasingly complex world.

On the other hand, the **ten million** have asked for little, and as a consequence, have received little in the way of continuing education. As a group they are uninformed and unskilled. Their lack of skills, their low motivation, and their timidity bar them from joining in the educational activities of the **fifty million**.

By and large, too many Indian adults in our reservation communities are in the **ten million** group; too few are members of the **fifty million**. As is the case with all adults, the educational needs of adult Indians are numerous and diverse. Coupled with this is the fact that an individual does not always feel or recognize his needs and so need is not necessarily accompanied by interest. These conditions make it difficult sometimes for a teacher of adults on a reservation to find his starting point and to define his role. In short, **what** should he teach and **how** should he go about it.

The Stewart Workshop

More than one hundred persons addressed themselves to these and other questions at an adult education workshop held at Stewart, Nevada in June 1957. The objectives of this workshop were fourfold: (a) to orient employees new to the adult education program, (b) to state a set of principles of education pertinent to the adult program, (c) to make a start on the development of a body of instructional content for the program, and (d) to begin learning the techniques of preparing teacher-made instruc-

tional material. A preliminary report of the product of the workshop has gone forward to the participants. A more carefully edited version will follow later.

The "Content" of an Adult Program

Obviously, a program as broad in scope as the educational needs and interests of adults must be approached in broad outline. One of the groups working on instructional content at the workshop subdivided the needs of adult Indians as follows: (a) need for skills, ranging from "carpentry" to "how to use a telephone"; (b) need for information, ranging from "occupational opportunities" to "first aid"; (c) need for understandings, including such matters as "local government" and "parental responsibility"; (d) use of skills, information, and understandings in solving such problems as alcoholism, low income, and family instability.

Another group saw most adult needs as falling into certain broad categories, regardless of race. These were (a) making a living, (b) home and family life, (c) participating citizenship, (d) health and safety, and (e) social adjustment.

The herculean task of developing a body of content for an adult education program could be little more than begun in two weeks' time. But few indeed were the participants who did not come away with a clearer idea of **what** he might teach based on Indian interests and needs.

The Role of the Adult Educator

The role of the adult educator—the "how" of the job—has also come in for increased scrutiny of late. Two points of view concerning this are frequently expressed. First, the role of the adult educator may be seen as primarily that of teacher. He seeks to aid in the development of the individual adult; to add to the individual's store of information, to develop his skills, and to improve his understandings so that he may better solve the problems of everyday living. In this role the teacher is constantly available; he is able to devote his full time and attention to individual adult needs as

perhaps no person on a reservation has ever been able to do before. He knows that much of life is group centered, but his premise is that before an individual can become an effective part of group action he must be able to bring to the group certain individual competencies. He believes that ten times one is ten; but that ten times zero is zero.

The second role in which the adult educator may be cast is that of a community organizer. He does not believe it feasible for him to attempt the job of adult education alone; he enlists the aid of many people, both inside the Bureau and out, who can help Indian adults acquire new skills and knowledge. He stimulates and coordinates these efforts. Most important of all, he believes that unless he can induce community groups through their own initiative and action to make a start on solving their problems he will not have fulfilled his purpose. In the parlance developed at the Stewart workshop, this role became known as that of a "social catalytic agent."

These roles need not be inconsistent with each other. They need not so much to be reconciled as to be merged. And in the merger they need not be kept in the same proportionate balance in all communities. For communities are not the same in their social development or educational needs. In one community the desire for basic language skills and information may be so over-riding as to consume much of the teacher's time. In another, most of the adult members may have the basic tools they need for effective group action if they are given the proper encouragement and guidance.

It is probable, however, that in nearly all communities the adult educator will need to play both roles in varying degrees. It is of prime importance that in both roles he remain an educator with clear-cut immediate and long-range goals. Administrators need to help formulate these goals, lest the job of adult educator degenerate into that of agency "handyman."

The Bureau's program of on-reservation

adult education is moving forward with numerous new units being established in the several Areas. Indian people are evincing great interest in "continuing" education for adults. The challenge to the Bureau is to plan with them wisely in making such help available.

4. BASIC ADULT EDUCATION— WHOSE JOB IS IT?

IN NOVEMBER 1959, the annual conference of NAPSAE (National Association of Public School Adult Educators) and the Adult Education Association of the United States was held in Buffalo, New York. Some of the insights gained at this meeting seem to be important enough to pass on to others who are interested in adult education.

The NAPSAE conference concerned itself largely with reacting to **A Tentative Statement of Principles and Purposes of Adult Education in the Public Schools of the United States**. A quotation or two from this document will be pertinent. "The curriculum of the adult school should seek to serve the educational needs of both the individual and society. Educational needs, for the most part, grow out of the responsibilities adults hold as individuals, as parents, as workers, as members of a family, as citizens. The curriculum of the adult school, therefore, should include program activities designed to provide the kinds of information, knowledge, and skills necessary to enable the individual citizen to fulfill more adequately his responsibilities to himself and to society." Further on it reads: "Adults in our society cannot fulfill their responsibilities effectively without the basic tools of communication and a reasonably good knowledge of themselves in relation to the world about them. A primary concern of the adult school curriculum, therefore, should be to provide basic education for the illiterate and the undereducated, including the foreign born. Beyond this point, it should include a

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well-planned program of parent and family life education; opportunities for vocational training and retraining; educational and vocational guidance; and education in civic and public affairs."

There is a striking similarity between this and much that has been written and said in shaping the adult education program of the Bureau of Indian Affairs. It is always pleasing and reassuring to hear one's own ideas being expressed by another source, particularly a source with the professional prestige of NAPSAE. We suspect that the NAPSAE statement will ring true to most, although not all, Bureau educators. This may be expected since Bureau education people are part and parcel of the profession of education of America.

The feeling of need on the part of public school adult educators to define and defend their programs arose in response to certain public pressures. There had been a mounting protest on the part of tax bodies and taxpayers against courses in bridge-playing, cake decorating, and fly-tying. And there were numerous adult activities which might be very good in themselves but which would be more properly sponsored by agencies other than the public schools.

When the scene shifted to the meeting of the Adult Education Association, the change of climate was noticeable. No single group such as public school people held sway here. So diverse, so varied, and sometimes so contradictory, were the aims, the interests, and the points of view represented by this group that probably it could never agree on a statement of **principles and purposes** of adult education. And yet, here to a greater extent than with the public school group did the writer find a small core of people who were urgently concerned with bringing help to the seriously undereducated adults of America. For while the public school adult educators have stated the need of basic education for undereducated adults, the undereducated of most communities do not fare well in competition for the school tax

dollar. This group is almost always inarticulate and without effective champions of their cause. It is true that they receive some attention in the larger cities, but in the rural areas they are largely neglected.

What, then, of the core of people really concerned with literacy and basic education for adults? This group, while holding common objectives, divided into two camps over methods. The one believes that adults can be taught to read, for example, only by the methods developed by professional educators over a period of many years for use with children. The other, which has gained worldwide fame under the slogan, "Each One Teach One," believes that adults can be taught to read by a much simpler and shorter method. The professional educators object that this is only "word calling," not reading in the sense of comprehension or conceptual understanding. The second camp replies that adults cannot or will not devote sufficient time to the task to learn to read by the more laborious methods. Whatever the merits of the opposing points of view, the sincerity of both groups is scarcely open to question.

One fact is beginning to stand out. Most public school systems are not finding sufficient funds to enable them to bring adequate help to their illiterate adults. In the meantime, the second group is beginning to attract some significant financial support from church groups and other organizations with a strong interest in social improvement. Only one year ago the public system of an otherwise progressive southern city of a half million population was not offering a single class in basic English to its fifty thousand functionally illiterate adult citizens. Since then the nonpublic school group has moved into this vacuum.

The Federal Government, through the Bureau of Indian Affairs, can take at least some credit for tackling the job of bringing basic education to a seriously undereducated segment of rural adults. But there is not much time for self-congratulation. We need

to show that, in the time available to them, adults can be taught to read and write. In order to do this we need to find the most effective methods that can be devised, whatever these may be.

5. A FURTHER LOOK AT ADULT EDUCATION

FROM TIME TO TIME in earlier issues of this periodical we have written about adult education. Sometimes, because our experience was incomplete, it has been necessary to discuss adult education from a somewhat theoretical point of view. We have leaned on the experiences of other people in other programs and have been guided by what seemed to be logical and right. There is an old saying, however, that "there is no substitute for experience," and we agree. During the past year the Bureau has had quite a lot of additional experience in the adult education field. The time has come, we think, to get down to actual cases and relate some of our experiences in the hope that they may shed light on some of our earlier assumptions.

Even a casual student of the adult education movement in America is impressed with the tremendous variety of learning interests and activities which has characterized it. It could scarcely be otherwise considering that adult education is always voluntary with the learner. The development of adult education for Indians has been no different. There is great diversity of content represented in the programs which are serving some 70 Indian communities.

In a previous article, "Helping the 'Ten Million,'" we said that there seemed to be two basic roles which an adult educator might play. One role was that of teacher; the other was that of community organizer or catalyst. Nothing in our experience since appears to disprove this assumption.

An Eskimo Village Program

In an Eskimo village there was a crying

need for a plentiful and pure water supply. The village adults recognized and admitted the need but felt sure that nothing could be done about it. The adult educator suggested that they dig a well. The villagers demurred because, first, they did not think they could get through the permafrost, and second, they did not think they would find water if they did. The adult educator persisted and finally one or two villagers somewhat reluctantly helped him sink a well. They struck a plentiful flow of water at 11 feet. Now there was enthusiasm and it was not too difficult, by popular subscription, to raise the money and labor needed to build a house over the well and to install a bucket, rope, and windlass. Furthermore, a sort of informal water users association was formed which drafted and adopted rules for use of the well. Call this a community development project or by whatever name you wish, it was certainly something more than a formalized classroom learning situation. And yet, at the same time, the adult educator in this village was giving formal instruction in language and numerical skills to those adults who wanted it.

Teacher, Community Worker, or Both

Adult educators in some of our units which serve the least educated Indian groups are frank to say that basic language and numbers instruction constitutes the backbone of their programs. True, they also teach such practical things as water use or sanitation or improvement of the home. Such study, however, always is related to the acquisition of language and number skills. This, they will tell you, is what their people want most of all: the language key which unlocks so many other doors.

In other parts of the country, lone adult educators working in Indian communities of a somewhat higher educational level have not attempted to establish formal group or individual instruction; in fact, they have sometimes deliberately foregone such opportunity when it presented itself. They argue, with considerable cogency, that they could

easily bog themselves down with the formal instruction of a relative handful of learners. They believe they should leave themselves free to help larger numbers of people by stimulating group action and community-improvement programs of various kinds.

Undoubtedly, each of these points of view has merit, particularly if the approach chosen has, in the opinion of the adult educator, special validity for the community in which he works. But it seems to us that each point of view has within it the seeds of its own destruction if carried to an extreme. In the case of the first approach the whole program of adult education may rest on too narrow a foundation. In no community, so far as we know, has a majority of the people who needed it chosen to participate in a literacy program even though the participation may have been very good. What do we have to offer the others who might be interested in something else? On the other hand, if we exclusively stress the group and community approach, what happens to the individual who may have very deep and sincere aspirations to improve himself personally? Must it always be a clear-cut choice between one approach or the other? We think not.

The Riddle of Motivation

In another article called "Education Comes Late," we said, "Many will attend class after having done a day's work so it is necessary for each to know he is learning something that will aid him immediately." While we still think this is a good general rule, we now know it is not an infallible one. Recently in one of our western States a woman in her late fifties passed the General Educational Development Test which qualified her for a certificate of equivalency to a high school diploma. As a girl, many years ago, she completed the ninth grade. Since then have come marriage and eight sons and seven grandchildren. In 1956 she enrolled in the adult education program on her reservation and with remarkable perseverance pursued the course of study which led to her certificate. Why? Surely this grandmother

entering later life did not see it as the opening to a career. But the deep personal satisfaction of achieving a goal which had eluded her for so many years may be almost incalculable.

On another reservation in the northern plains a program struck fire after having been treated with relative indifference for months. The reaction when it came was somewhat puzzling. More than 30 individuals signed up with one of the state colleges for a total of more than 60 correspondence courses ranging from French and Spanish to guitar playing, with such things as wildlife management, soil conservation, and shorthand sprinkled in between. Nor was this a flash-in-the-pan effort, for the adults worked industriously and with evident enjoyment at their courses over a considerable period of time. Why? To those who feel that they see the pressing needs of Indian communities very clearly, such activities may seem a regrettably indirect approach to the solution of such problems. This may be so, but human beings can be both diverse and perverse and if such activities make them feel more competent or to think better of themselves, the long run gains may be very real indeed.

Circumstances Alter Programs

It must be evident by now that what we are contending for is a flexible, openminded, and varied approach to adult education —for Indians or anyone else. If one is not careful it is easy to go into a program with a whole set of pat objectives and specific activities in mind which make good sense to the adult educator but which, immediately at least, may not make much sense to the adult learners. This should not be taken to mean, of course, that the adult educator need not have any ideas at all. He has an obligation to suggest, to stimulate, to innovate, and to plan. He had better be prepared, however, to change course if the wishes of the people dictate it. Above all, he should resist the temptation to overmanage either his program or the people, for to do so

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is essentially paternalistic and may meet with a profound rejection by the people. We have observed that in almost every case the approach of our adult educators has been consistent with the principles expressed above, and we believe that this accounts more than anything else for the high degree of acceptance of the program.

Many kinds of factors influence adult education programs. On one reservation the tribe is sponsoring and financing a farm training project for 24 young men, about half of whom have families. When the adult education unit was begun it was made an integrated part of the total program. In this kind of setting the adult education program enjoys certain advantages. To begin with, the trainees were a selected group. Furthermore, they were receiving their subsistence from the tribe while in training and thus did not have to leave the community for employment as many adults must do. The goals of the farm training program were well formulated and so it was possible to plan an educational program which tied in neatly in supplementing the basic farm training program. Each group in farm training is scheduled for a definite period of time (two years) which greatly facilitates the planning and scheduling of the supplementary program. While participation is voluntary and has to be done by the men at night after a day's work, most of them are highly motivated. As a result of their farm training they can see that such things as simple bookkeeping, budgeting, credit and banking, and language and numerical skills are important to them. Some of the wives also participate in these evening studies and in the afternoon a home economist works with them on homemaking and child care. The average attendance has been excellent. Few programs, however, have so many positive factors working in their favor.

The Need for Help of Others

Sometimes adult educators must guard against the temptation to try to do everything themselves. It is of the greatest im-

portance that Indian people become accustomed to using the same State and local services that are available to other citizens. It appears that one of our newer programs has made an excellent beginning in this direction. In cooperation with the county home demonstration agent, work is being done with the women in cooking, sewing, gardening, canning, and home improvement. The State highway patrol is cooperating in a course in driver education. Under the direction of the public health doctor, classes are being held in prenatal care and tuberculosis education. Also, under the guidance of a representative of the Arts and Crafts Board, a start is being made on reactivating and upgrading craft production which had begun to die out. The adults have shown interest in this kind of program. In theory, one would hope and expect that the adult learners through their experience in the activities described above would become aware of their limitations in language and numbers skills and want to do something about them. It must be reported that to date there are not many signs of this happening, although it may still come about.

The Superintendent Is the Key Man

Whichever role the adult educator assumes, whether that of teacher or of community catalyst, it is important that he work as a part of the agency staff. If the major emphasis is to be put on the latter role, it is imperative that the superintendent of the agency take an active and leading part in directing the planning of the program and in coordinating the work of the adult educator with that of other program people on his staff. He is the one person with the authority to provide the kind of climate in which the adult educator can work successfully.

6. ADULT EDUCATION: AN ESSENTIAL

THE BUREAU OF INDIAN AFFAIRS is ever aware that if it is to realize many

permanent results from the education of children, it is of prime importance that the educational abyss which exists between parent and child be narrowed and closed. With this in mind, the Bureau has resolved to go "all out" in an effort to help the adult Indian to "catch up," academically and socially.

From its inception, the Bureau has recognized the need for adult training and has made attempts to come to grips with the problem by various means. Through the years several agencies of the Bureau have given meritorious service in such fields as health, home extension, land operations, and relocation. In the academic field many classroom teachers have devoted some of their own time, without financial or other material compensation, to adult classes. This present program was not initiated for the purpose of superseding the existing instructional and advisory programs. The policy is to reinforce the work being done by them, and to cooperate with them at every possible opportunity.

As educators, we assume one result of Indian education to be economic assimilation into the non-Indian society. We are aware that there are many important factors that contribute to the process of assimilation, but we feel assured that without formal education there will never be a spectacular improvement in the status of the Indian, socially or economically. Basically then, the goal of the adult education program is to help the Indian raise his living standards and to meet economic competition on a basis as near equal as possible that of the non-Indian. We believe the key to this enigma lies primarily in a literate Indian population. Our theory is that when, and only when, these skills are an accomplished fact can we help the Indian to help himself to meet successfully the modern day problems encountered on or off the reservation. So our specific goal is to give the illiterate and semiliterate the opportunity of learning the fundamentals of communication.

The desire for adult education must come

from the Indian himself. As a consequence, the individuals with higher aspirations are likely to be the ones to take advantage of the program. One of our greatest problems is to orient the thinking of the educationally handicapped to the need for an education. We hope to awaken more adult Indians to the fact that to remain static actually means to regress.

How do we go about our task? We use no magic formula. We adhere to the same basic principles of learning used in the conventional program. We are learning to make adaptations of these principles to our own peculiar situations as they apply to the adult. The program of necessity, must be flexible. We find the occasional individual who is interested in learning only one or two things; for example, how to write his name and address or how to add simple numbers. However, after we try to meet the need which brought him into the program, our usual procedure is to try to interest the illiterate in a program of primary skills in communication and arithmetic. Into these activities we weave basic information which has immediate and practical value to his everyday living. Among these are sanitation and health, simple buying and selling, time concepts, or maybe tribal government, to mention but a few.

The adults who already have a knowledge of basic communications may choose to do more advanced work of this nature. Among their choices may be cattle selling, regional geography, range laws, State or National Government. It is our duty to assist with any learning in which the adult is interested and capable of achieving. We feel that his interest dictates the choice which fills a need. Although we do not assume the regulation of his choice of subject matter, this does not preclude our guidance in helping him recognize a need.

One of the most interesting aspects of this program is the progress being made in understanding more about how adults in general, and adult Indians in particular,

respond to certain methods of teaching. Though much has been published on educational methods for the foreign born, we were able to find almost nothing concerning the teaching of the adult Indian. To those with no experience in Indian education, this may seem to be a rather insignificant issue. There is a definite difference between the two in that with the Indian it is necessary to establish certain concepts with which he has neither a cultural acquaintance nor a verbal equivalence.

Working in the adult education program is not an assignment for the impatient or despondent. It is a task for the persevering; for those with the faith and forebearance to remove a mountain if need be, stone by stone.

7. QUALITY TEACHING REACHES BEYOND THE CLASSROOM*

AS I LOOK AROUND THE VILLAGE, I do not see any "radical" changes. But there are changes; changes that have come about since my husband and I came here; changes that we think will stay after we leave. All the things that have been done have come about through the working together of my husband, myself, and the people in the village.

The first week we arrived we heard there was to be a development project in our village. All the people would have new homes; there would be a church, store, post office, and community hall. What a wonderful idea, we thought, so we tried to help it along. We had a meeting with the village people and it was decided that there would be one meeting a week to get the project going. After that it was fight, fight, fight all the way, but we did get one cabin built and 24 foundations in. Roads have been built and named. Everyone has a lot picked out on high ground, where there is plenty of room for toilets and dogs at a good distance

from the house so there is no danger of polluting the water supply. We have many opportunities for teaching during these meetings. People leaving the schoolhouse at 1:00 a.m. become a familiar sight; my bed was not!

Last Saturday as I watched, three or four of the children came down for water. I was thrilled to see that they crossed the slough to the other side of the river to get their water. I remember when we first came the water was taken from the slough and I talked and talked to them, explaining that the water there was dirty since there were dogs living on the bank. One of the mothers told me her boy now washes his hands before he eats, and she was upset because he wanted a clean towel every time. This was a good opportunity to have a lesson on why we shouldn't use dirty towels, dishes, etc.

I have a full-time village helper in the house. Rather than keep one, I change off. This is more work as I have to show each one of them how to wash dishes clean, how to make a bed, how to put the children to bed for a nap so they won't get overtired, and how to dress them warmly. But I am rewarded when I see the difference in how some of the school children are taken care of. It's a long way from being perfect, but it's a start.

Last winter I convinced two women they should be village nurses and we spent two weeks making medicine kits for each house. They listed everything each family received, when pill boxes needed refilling, and other pertinent data. I had only two people come to me for medicine in almost nine months.

Grownups heard that the children were borrowing books from the school library and asked if they could do the same. The number of borrowers grew too large so I collected all the books I could and we now have a public library in the village. An older school student is the librarian.

Many adults asked if they could put news in our school paper. Now students go around each Friday collecting news. It takes twice

as long and the paper is twice as big, but likewise, interest is twice as great.

We have PTA meetings monthly, and strange ones they are. We have discussed how to read thermometers, how to make out checks, the cost of vitamins, why small children need milk, and where "Welfare" gets its money.

I have learned to cook porcupine and caribou head soup, how to cut meat to dry, and how to tan caribou hide. The people understand and appreciate my taking the time and caring enough to learn how these things are done. They, in turn, take the time to learn how I do things.

I could go on and on with these out-of-the-classroom activities that keep me busy after I send the children home such as writ-

ing letters to senators for a new airstrip, helping to draw up a "contract" for one of the older men who is taking some white men to a place where he thinks there is gold and wants a "square deal," etc.

These are the reasons I like my job. When I first came to this village I thought I was unique in having so many things to do that I read only two books the first year and never even touched my knitting. But now I have had a chance to speak to other teachers in Alaska, and I realize there are only a few unique teachers in the Bureau. These are the ones who at four o'clock every afternoon say, "Boy, I'm all done now until tomorrow." The rest of us are never done.

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INSERVICE EDUCATION PROGRAMS

**1. THE MARK
OF A PROFESSION**

IT HAS BEEN SAID that one mark of a profession is that its members seek constantly to keep apace of developments germane to its activities. Especially today, with our ever-changing society and the implications which these changes have for the school curriculum, members of the education profession must continually work toward keeping abreast of developments. One might say, educators must run fast to keep from falling behind.

Keeping Current Through Inservice Education

The members of the education profession engage in inservice education programs to keep themselves informed of the developments in the field of education. Broadly speaking, inservice education includes all activities engaged in by professional personnel during their service which are designed to contribute to the improvement of their performance. Everything a person does in conjunction with one or more individuals to improve the educational program for children is inservice education. Everything a person does alone to improve the quality of his performance is professional growth. The reading of professional literature is one activity which can be engaged in individually or in conjunction with others. This is the phase of inservice education discussed in this article.

Knowledge Being Extended Through Research

Knowledge is being extended in the many phases of education by the vast amount of research that has been done, and that which is still being carried on. Authors in the field

of education base their writings on this research. Professional books, articles in professional journals, reports of conference proceedings, and digests of research provide the information which can keep personnel knowledgeable of developments in their profession. Therefore, teachers, supervisors, and administrators are better performers as they attempt to provide an educational program for today's children because of the professional reading they do.

Each person who is concerned with the instruction of children owes it to himself and to the students to check his own beliefs and practices with those of the authorities in the field of education whose beliefs are developed by the extensive research available to them. For example, how do your beliefs regarding the promotion of children who do not achieve at the average level of the class check with research findings? Do research findings agree with your ideas regarding the best method of teaching spelling? Do you agree with the current trends in vocational education? Classroom experience should be combined with reading of research and theory in making application to one's own teaching.

With the increased attention now being given to the importance of reading to successful living, more and more research is being carried out to determine the best methods of teaching such a complex process as reading. A wealth of knowledge is available to everyone who has any responsibility for the reading program. There is information based on research for every teacher on what is involved in the reading process, what skills are needed at the different levels, causes of reading difficulties, and many other aspects of the reading act.

The person, individually or in cooperative study with others, who keeps abreast of the new developments is better prepared to make wise decisions regarding the program for which he is responsible. Personal opinion and experience are valuable; however, as a basis for decisions they are not sufficient. The teacher who instructs Indian children knows he can rarely use teaching methods without modifying them to fit his particular group. For example, the teaching of communication skills to a group of third-grade children for whom English is a second language must be approached differently from methods which would be used in teaching children with an English-speaking background. It is the wise teacher who, when faced for the first time with a bilingual group, searches the professional literature to see what the research findings are as to the best approach to successful teaching of children in a second language. By reading what the authorities have identified as problems and what may be done to solve them, the teacher should be better able to undertake his own task: to identify the problems of his specific group, to find effective methods to use, to document his own findings and thereby add to the store of knowledge on how more effectively to teach children who are getting their education in a second language. With the information gained from reading and from discussions with other people, the teacher is ready to adapt his methods of teaching to fit the needs of his particular group of children.

In addition to the strictly professional literature there are the editorials, articles, reports, and books which are concerned with the issues of education and are written by people outside the profession. This literature, to a small or to a great extent, influences what the people of the community, the state, or nation think of the schools. The support which parents, business people, and taxpayers give to the schools may depend on the school staffs being well informed on what is being written. The time necessary to

keep up with the issues may be time well spent.

Role of the School Administrator

The school administrator has a role to play in fostering professional reading on the part of the school staff. In addition to the reading he does to keep himself up to date, he recommends important articles for his staff's reading, and makes professional literature available to them. Books and current issues of magazines are conveniently placed for staff members to use. His technical staff has the responsibility to keep informed on current materials and their sources and to advise staff members, who may have less opportunity to know of the best sources, what is available that may help them solve their problems. Those in leadership roles can perform a valuable service if they can interpret the significance of research to Indian education. Of prime significance is the professional literature pertinent to the special problems of Indian education which should be made available and used when new teachers are oriented to work with Indian children.

Summary

To summarize, inservice education or professional growth by professional reading may be accomplished in two ways: through individual study by each teacher, adviser, department head, principal, superintendent, and educational specialist, and through cooperative study by groups of education personnel. The reading of professional literature can contribute to both methods by providing background information about the children taught and permitting teachers to extend their general knowledge and to check their beliefs and practices with those of the authorities in the field of education.

Perhaps what I have been trying to say throughout this article is simply this—children deserve teachers, teacher-advisers, supervisors, and administrators who keep abreast of developments in education and change their programs when needed to meet today's demands.

2. LOOK TO YON MOUNTAIN

THROUGHOUT HISTORY non-Indians have looked upon education as the key to Indian advancement. Indians in the past, at least in the eyes of the public, may have seemed resistant and slow to accept formal education as a thing of value to them. Without going into the reasons and factors behind their change in attitude, it can be said with a degree of certainty that Indians of today almost universally place an extremely high value on education. Education to Indians today provides a vision of hope—a symbol of everything that is needed to deal with the staggering problems facing them. Those concerned with Indian education, who in the final analysis is everyone concerned with helping Indians come to grips with their problems, are in turn facing an equally staggering problem of helping Indians to translate "education, the symbol" into "education, the reality." Translating a visionary symbol into educational programs that will put bone and flesh on Indian goals is no small task. This is especially true at this particular time in light of the technological and scientific changes taking place. If facing these rapidly engulfing changes in the world today is a great problem for us all, it is a much greater problem for Indians who, generally speaking, are about one-half as well educated as the general non-Indian population.

Key educators from the Bureau of Indian Affairs and tribal leaders from Indian groups with the greatest educational problems met together for two weeks in 1957 to deliberate and come to grips with the problems of developing educational plans and objectives that would give life to Indian goals. The purpose, planning and preparation, the organization, and the discussions and recommendations involved have been fully documented and made available to participants and others vitally concerned with the outcomes of the workshop. Therefore, the purpose of this discussion is not to

evaluate the methods and techniques involved in the planning or carrying on of the two weeks' work or to evaluate the leadership skills in evidence during the workshop period or to evaluate the quality of ideas that were recorded in the reports and recommendations. The work of the session has been well evaluated both as to its strengths and weaknesses by those who participated in the experience. The purpose here is to point to some of the deeper implications that have important significance for all Bureau personnel and others concerned with advancing Indian progress.

If in the past Indian culture by comparison to the major culture could be properly characterized as too much oriented toward the past and not enough oriented toward the future, that characterization is no longer holding true so far as it relates to education. At least it did not characterize the thinking of the Indian leaders represented at the workshop. They were deeply concerned about their future, especially the future of their children. They were concerned about the world their children will have to live in and especially concerned that they be prepared adequately to face it. **There was evidence during the discussions of realization on the part of Indian leaders and school administrators of the urgent need at all levels for more joint planning; more thinking together; more willingness to explore and to study the facts together; and then, on the basis of examined facts, a willingness to plan together and hammer out educational programs that are sound from the technical point of view of the educator, and which from the Indian point of view bring life and reality to his goals.** The workshop, it is believed, contributed a deeper understanding on the part of both Indian leaders and school administrators of their respective roles in joint planning of sound educational programs directed toward mutually understood goals. Along with it grew a realization of the need to develop greater skill in carrying out this "togetherness."

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One Indian leader summed it up in beautifully profound words. When speaking of education he said to the school administrators: "Our eyes are on yon mountain; we look to you to help us find our way to the top." Indians are ready and willing to come to grips with the facts. Educators must be as willing and ready to help Indians explore many points of view; educators from their technical background must be willing to point out the consequences and implications of various courses of action so that in the end Indians may make wise choices and decisions with respect to education for themselves and their children. This will mean that both Indians and school administrators must be willing to set aside cherished notions or historically based viewpoints or emotionally steeped ideas and face the hard cold facts of reality.

This leads into a second implication of the workshop. The discussions during the two weeks indicated that all of us are more comfortable when we can agree and less so when we feel on the basis of principle that we must disagree with other points of view. Yet, in effectively helping Indian people translate their ambitions into "flesh and blood" educational programs we school administrators and education supervisors are called upon to exercise a role of influence. We influence Indian people and others in their planning of educational programs that are technically sound. We influence coworkers and educational operators to carry out programs in accordance with technically sound procedures. By the very nature of the type of influence we are expected to exercise, it stands to reason that we cannot always be in agreement with everyone. Always to be in agreement would presuppose that everyone would have exactly the same viewpoint and convictions with respect to educational principles, and exactly the same background of technical experiences. This is never the case. **There was unmistakable evidence during the deliberations of a need to develop greater skill in communicating**

educational ideas to others; greater skill in influencing others toward a deeper understanding of the technical aspects of education; greater skill, if you please, in disagreeing with the viewpoint or shaking the convictions of others in order to bring about a broader consideration of educational problems and programs; greater skill in leading others to see long-range consequences of decisions and actions that set aside sound principles.

The idea that "yes men" could never be effective school administrators was stated several times by different people during the sessions.

The workshop experience left us with a realization that we must, from our background of training and experience, sharpen our skills of communicating the facts and technical information that Indian people, coworkers, and line officers must consider to arrive at sound decisions with respect to educational programs.

The workshop was planned in such a way that the first group (administrators) would, during the second week, absorb a new group of participants (education supervisors), quickly give them the high points of the previous discussions, and secure their participation without great loss or momentum. In an organization such as the Bureau of Indian Affairs which must advance programs toward long-range goals, this particular skill becomes important otherwise much motion is lost in going back over the same discussions with new groups—going back and traveling the same roads from the beginning. **The problem becomes one of making each meeting or each conference and workshop, each year's work add to rather than repeat ideas and understandings previously developed.**

The ability to make each meeting have additive qualities, especially when those meetings involve all or some new people, is based on certain skills, certain attitudes, and certain understandings. There must be a clear understanding of the consecutive re-

lationships of a given meeting or conference to those that have preceded it, and in addition some idea of the direction toward which this particular meeting is pointing. In other words, one must have some feeling of sequence, and some understanding of the relationship of this particular meeting to the starting and finishing points.

There must be a proper attitude on the part of both experienced and new group members. There must be a willingness on the part of the members who have participated to accept and orient new participants. There must be willingness on the part of new participants to be both good listeners and learners, and a readiness to grasp high points of past discussions and move forward with the group. New members should not expect lengthy repetition of earlier discussion experience; instead they must be willing, ready, and able to pick up threads quickly and move forward with the group.

This requires skill in organizing, summarizing, and briefing high points of discussions, and communicating effectively those salient points to new members. In turn, it requires skills in listening, relating ideas, grasping the high points and assimilating them with one's background on the part of the new members.

Evaluations made by individual members indicated that the second week of the administrators workshop was not as fruitful as the first; that there was too much repetition of the first week's work. This leaves us with the unanswered question of "Why was this the case?"

Was this due to the fact that we are not as skilled as we should be in absorbing new members into our group, or in becoming new members of an on-going group? If so, perhaps one of our next inservice training tasks is to sharpen our skills in this area.

Although there was much evidence throughout the workshop concerning the need for more adequate interpretation of the dominant culture to Indian people, exploration of this problem will be undertaken

in later articles. This discussion has been limited to pointing up the foregoing implications which for me stood out in bold relief: more joint planning with Indian leaders, greater skill in communicating technical aspects of education to others, and making each conference additive instead of repetitive.

3. INDIVIDUAL COMPETENCE NOT ENOUGH

"**B**ETTER SCHOOLS THROUGH BETTER SUPERVISION" was the theme for the second conference of the Bureau's education specialists held at Phoenix Indian School, January 1958.

Much of the responsibility for the improvement of the Bureau's instructional program is borne by this group of educators. Education specialists function at the Agency, Area Office, and Washington Office levels. Typically, as individuals, they are extraordinarily well qualified for their jobs in both training and experience.

For some time, however, the education specialists have known that individual competence, by itself, is not enough. Because their functions interlock at many points in attacking common problems, and because they have felt they could be of great help in strengthening each other professionally, they have sought the opportunity to plan together.

The conference addressed itself to three main topics: (a) What Does Research Say? (b) Criteria for Observation and Evaluation of Teaching, and (c) Interrelationships in the Branch of Education. In addition, attention was given to three related topics: (a) The Teaching of Oral English, (b) The Use of Instructional Materials, and (c) The Place of Audio-Visual Aids. Finally, the conference was concerned with quickly and efficiently communicating what had transpired in the conference during the first six days to the area directors of schools who joined the

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group for the last two.

As it turned out, more was attempted than could be completed in eight working days—a common and understandable error in planning work conferences of this type. It soon became clear, however, that wrapping up work assignments in a neat package was not so important or even desirable as was the development of common understandings and the initiation of crucial longer range projects.

What Does Research Say? The conferees were asked to do some "homework" before coming to the conference. In one of eight designated learning areas, each examined the research literature to see what is current in that field. Later these papers were synthesized into one report. As is true of teachers and administrators, the nose of the education specialist can get very close to the grindstone. One beneficial result of this stint of reading, then, was to raise the professional sights of the specialists above the routine of the daily workload. An even more important outcome will be the utilization of research findings in the modification of our educational procedures. As the reporting committee pointed out, too often teaching has been based upon intuition, trial and error, and guessing. Opinion and tradition may be proved wrong by research. Few would deny that teaching is an art, but it can be greatly strengthened by the injection of some scientific method into it too.

Criteria for Observation and Evaluation of Teaching. The membership of the conference was divided into five groups of about ten persons, each, to work on establishing criteria of supervision. Approximately, a day and a half was spent on this activity. Each group tackled the job in its own way. Each group member was an experienced supervisor, and unquestionably, each had definite ideas as to what the criteria should be. And yet, curiously enough (although this seems always to be the case in group work), considerable time was spent in defining terms, settling upon a format, and taking the first

steps toward agreement on a basic philosophy of supervision.

It is probable that any individual member of the group could have moved faster in establishing the criteria by working independently. To conclude, however, that the group approach was ineffective would be to miss the main point. At the end of the time allowed, a good start had been made on establishing a philosophy of supervision to which the individual members could subscribe, and on setting up the criteria which were agreed to be important. Group members had attained some common understandings.

Probably this work on criteria represented the hard core of the conference effort. However, no more than a beginning could be made in the time available. The feeling was general, though, that in a future work session the group could pick up where it had left off and proceed much more rapidly.

Interrelationships in the Branch of Education. It is not easy for the education specialist to understand clearly just how she fits into the organizational hierarchy of the Branch. The terms "line" and "staff," for example, are foreign to most people new to government work. At the first conference held in January 1957, a beginning was made on clarifying these interrelationships; this year the effort was renewed with greater success. Undoubtedly, the recent articles in **Indian Education** concerning the roles of teachers, principals, department heads, education specialists, and others have helped with clarification. The matter is too intricate to go into very deeply here. However, the essence of it may be said to be (a) the education specialist is a "staff" officer; (b) she is what the title implies—a person with specialized knowledge and skills; (c) as such, she is a resource person, available for professional help; (d) while she cannot give orders, she has a responsibility to make recommendations, and if necessary, to see that they are reviewed by higher authority; (e) she is a "teacher" of other education personnel (However, an education specialist at

the Area level would not supervise classroom teachers, except in the absence of an agency specialist or if invited to do so); (f) in general, the education specialist gets results because of her professional competence and by convincing others of the rightness of what she recommends.

The Teaching of Oral English. There was general agreement that the teaching of oral English to Indian children needs to be strengthened. Ninety percent of a person's communication throughout life is oral. Oral language is a necessary precedent to learning to read, to write, to listen to, and even to think in a language. By overemphasis on written work, workbooks, and the like, it is very easy to slight the development of oral speech. This is particularly true in the case of the child who comes from a non-English-speaking home. The conferees were privileged to see a demonstration of teaching oral English to a group of Navajo students in the Phoenix Indian School. Later, they visited the American Institute of Foreign Trade and observed the methods used there in teaching American students conversational Spanish, French, and Portuguese. In both cases the approach is so fresh and feasible as to be almost revolutionary, but it is getting results.

The Use of Instructional Materials and the Place of Audio-Visual Aids. These two topics were presented by members of the Field Technical Staff who had prepared exhibits and oral discussions. They were excellently done. Basic points made were (a) we need a wealth and variety of instructional material if we are really to meet the individual needs of pupils; and (b) audio-visual aids encompass much more than the stereotyped idea of projectors and tape recorders. It is important that all persons concerned with the instructional program have an understanding of how audio-visual aids may be used in teaching on a planned basis.

Making the Conference "Additive" for the Area Directors of Schools. This was the job that the conferees felt it did least well.

Nevertheless, there was planned effort to get the job done. Separate committees attempted to summarize the output of the conference on the topics under consideration. These one-page summaries were duplicated and handed to each person. In addition, they were reviewed briefly orally. (The topic of Interrelationships in the Branch was taken up jointly with the area directors of schools after they arrived.)

It is a little hard to say why this function of making the conference additive was deemed to be unsatisfactory. More than anything else, one sensed that communication was not flowing freely between the old group and the new. Reaction to the reports was not spontaneous and animated. Obviously it is difficult to transmit in an hour or so to newcomers common ideas that it has taken another group six days to evolve. And yet if staff work is to be effective, something like this must be managed. Administrators do not have time to plow the same ground that their staff people have been over.

Undoubtedly greater readiness on the part of both groups was needed. The education specialists needed more time to prepare their summaries in concise, logical, and orderly terms. That they were not able to do better in this respect probably indicates that their own understandings were not yet sufficiently crystallized. On the other hand, the area directors of schools needed to be better oriented in advance on the specific problems with which the conference was grappling and to have done some preliminary thinking about them.

If we really believe in the educational axiom that we "learn by doing," there is no real reason for discouragement, for we shall try until we have learned.

4. WORKSHOP: QUEST FOR QUALITY TEACHING

DURING THREE YEARS OF WORK by the Civil Service Commission and the

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Bureau of Indian Affairs, plans were made and the framework established for a program to recognize and reward Bureau teachers who are doing superior teaching. Also during this time, the Bureau held conferences which involved groups at all levels of school supervision. Information was gathered and studied concerning efforts being made by school systems over the country to reward superior teaching through merit plans. The study of the various plans disclosed that success had been realized in many places. It also revealed the pitfalls that caused many programs to be discontinued.

Armed with conclusions from the study of many plans, the Civil Service Commission and Bureau planners attempted to develop a plan that would use the strengths found in the successful programs and avoid at least the major characteristics that often discourage educators from attempting such a venture.

By the fall of 1961, the overall procedures for carrying out the program had been determined. Washington Office, Area, and Agency educational personnel held a series of meetings to bring the proposed plan to as many teachers as possible to get their reactions, and to request their help in further refining the program should it be put into effect.

However, before this time the proposed master-teacher program was well known to many teachers for administrators in many schools had been discussing the possible program with their teaching staffs. These teachers were well prepared to consider very seriously the merits and difficulties of the program and to suggest ways of putting it into operation so that it would work to their own advantage and, in turn, to the advantage of the children whom they teach.

The results of the meetings, as indicated by tabulating replies to a questionnaire, showed that the great majority of the teachers approved the Bureau's attempting a master-teacher program. They agreed that,

with everyone putting his best efforts into the venture, it should be successful under the plan proposed.

Supervisory Personnel Concerned

Supervisory personnel, in their desire to insure the success of the program, expressed concern for their responsibilities. Their concerns, generally, were with such matters as follows:

1. Having freedom from duties which often prevent their giving sufficient time and attention to working with individual teachers
2. Kinds of periodic observations, evaluations, and documentation of teachers' work that would provide maximum help to the teachers
3. Using supervisory techniques to improve instruction throughout the school program.

Many supervisors suggested that the supervisory personnel get together to study effective techniques of evaluating classroom instruction. They requested that particular attention be given to documenting observations. They also thought the group should come to some common understandings and conclusions that would lead to the establishing of standards of supervision for use in all Bureau schools. These suggestions were the basis for developing plans for the 1962 Bureauwide education workshop.

Inservice Education for Supervisors

The workshop participants who gathered at the Intermountain School in June numbered 200 and included education specialists, department heads, and non-teaching principals. Generally speaking, these are the people responsible for the technical supervision in Bureau schools.

An important step had been accomplished, prior to the workshop, when teachers, supervisors, education specialists, and administrators had accepted, in general, the proposed plan of recognizing superior teaching and upgrading instruction; when they had recognized and expressed the need for concentrated, Bureauwide efforts to make

the program practical and workable; and when they had identified the particular areas in which they felt efforts should be concentrated.

Upon convening at Intermountain, the participants were assigned to study groups according to the responsibilities carried at home base. Each of the 10 study groups had a chairman and a co-chairman to act as leaders. To make sure that they would be ready to carry their responsibilities in the workshop, these leaders met for two weeks before the other participants arrived. They organized schedules and set up guides for observing and evaluating classroom instruction, materials, and curricula. They observed demonstration classes and tried their hand at documenting those observations. They criticized their own work and that of others. They held conferences with demonstration teachers and helped plan the work for the demonstration classes. In short, the leaders spent several days making dry runs of the plans for the workshop in order to "feel" the problems that they believed would arise and to plan for dealing with them.

Since the participants had largely determined the purposes that the workshop would serve and had established the general content with which it would be concerned, they were constantly motivated by their own pressing desires and the need to accomplish their goals. Each participant seemed to test constantly what he was doing against the objectives for which the workshop was being undertaken. Every effort made was evaluated, then and there, in terms of whether participants believed it to be useful in their daily work; whether it would be accepted by others; whether it would meet the criteria set up; whether it was thorough; whether they, themselves, had faith in its standing up against criticism; whether they could subscribe to it. The groups changed their techniques at any time they felt their central purposes were in jeopardy. Evaluation became so much a part of all the work that it could not have been separated, most of

the time, from any other aspect of the workshop. The resource people kept in close touch with all groups to help each determine whether it was staying on the subject, and whether progress was being made toward the goals.

Workshop Resources

The chairman and assistants not only served as leaders but actually were resource persons as well for they represented a wealth of valuable experience and insight which they shared with their respective groups. Among the participants also, there was a wide range of rich experience and insight so that each group had tremendous resources within itself.

In order to provide live situations with which the supervisors could work, seven demonstration classes were set up and taught by Bureau teachers. There were a first grade; fourth grade; eighth grade; and tenth grade English, mathematics, home economics, and industrial arts classes.

Each participant had an opportunity to see one of the Intermountain teachers and a group of students use a language laboratory to work toward improving oral English.

What Did the Workshop Accomplish?

The real value of the workshop cannot be determined for some time. Only after supervisors have been able to make use of what they learned during this year will they and others be able to judge how successful it has been in:

1. Improving supervisory skills
2. Improving individual teaching skills
3. Upgrading instruction throughout Bureau schools.

However, some evaluation was possible. Many comments on the value of the experiences indicated that the participants felt they were getting the help they needed. Several said they were growing in their ability to analyze and interpret what they observed. Still others said they were increasing their confidence in their own ability to do a good job. A few said they had received much assistance in developing their own

supervisory skills. Other comments of a similar nature were made.

Many participants made suggestions for continuing the training and extending the values that they felt were accruing. These suggestions were as follows:

1. That a handbook for supervisors be developed covering the main areas under consideration at the workshop
2. That at least one more workshop be held to expand the work started this year
3. That the same group of people should participate.

Many said that although the workshop had accomplished much, the need for continuing the training still existed; that after a year's operation they should meet in 1963 to reinforce and broaden what they had learned by re-evaluating supervision, redirecting their efforts as needed, and firmly establishing standards and procedures.

Individual schools have made, the Special Navajo Program no longer serves the needs of these overage students now enrolling in Bureau off-reservation schools.

Now the students, on an average, are approximately two years younger than those who enrolled in the program in 1946. Now, too, the students enter with more previous schooling, even though they have not had an opportunity to complete a full elementary course of education. And today's students have a great desire to graduate from high school—a desire they should be given every possible chance to fulfill.

Indian schools have tried to meet changing needs of a few of these overage students by making special provisions for them within their regular high school program. Recognizing that these plans will meet the needs of only a few, and that the vast majority of students need more special attention and help to gain the academic strength needed to qualify for a high school diploma, Bureau employees meeting at Chemawa set about to find ways to provide that help. This in a sense was a historic venture; a venture aimed at helping the educationally deprived teenager reach his goal—a high school diploma. A beginning was made at the workshop.

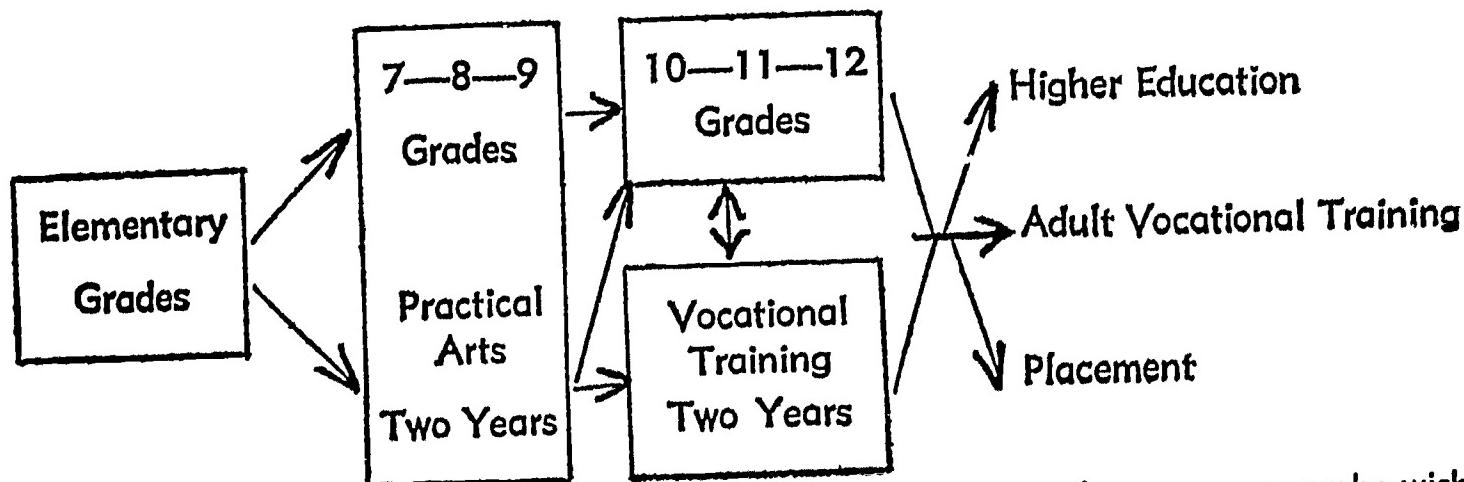
After listening to each school report on what it had done on an individual basis, the workshop members concluded that an organizational pattern had to be found that will allow as many of these students as can, and want to, to complete high school.

Flexibility was the keyword of the workshop. Statements such as "We must recognize each student as an individual and his right to advance at his own rate of speed" and "We must arrange our instruction in such a manner that we break the lockstep progression of students" reflected the purpose of the conference.

In discussing how a student could move through this organization the program pattern shown on the opposite page was developed.

5. AN EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM IS UPDATED

IN A WORKSHOP SESSION, approximately 50 administrators and teachers from 10 Bureau schools wrestled with an educational problem of deep concern to them; namely, finding a way to provide a high school education for the five to six thousand over-age-for-their-grade Navajo students enrolling in off-reservation schools today. In many ways this workshop can be compared to the one held in the summer of 1946 when the Bureau was faced with providing an educational program for hundreds of Navajo teenagers who had little or no formal schooling. The special curriculum planned in 1946, known as the Special Navajo Program and revised as the years went by, served the purpose when living was less complex and when adequate job opportunities were available in unskilled and semiskilled categories. Opportunities for employment grow less each year in the unskilled and semiskilled fields of work. Even with the revisions that the in-



In developing this pattern the following points were agreed upon as guidelines to follow in helping the student move through the school:

1. The elementary section will be ungraded.
2. Goals will be developed for the elementary section.
3. The rate at which an individual student will move through the elementary section will depend upon the level at which he enters, his age, and the rate at which he is able to complete the work.
4. Students may progress into the junior high school section or into the practical arts program, depending upon variables to be determined.
5. The lower levels of the junior high school section will probably be carried on in self-contained classrooms. The upper level may or may not be departmentalized. This will be determined by the size of the enrollment of the school, staff, and facilities. If it is departmentalized, teaching by blocks will be encouraged.
6. Goals will be developed for the junior high school section.
7. The rate at which an individual will move through the junior high school section will depend upon age at admittance, level of achievement, rate at which he is able to progress, and other determinants to be established.
8. All ninth grade students will be expected to take practical arts training.

9. Students several years overage who wish to go into vocational training may make plans at this time to do so. Others may elect to continue the high school academic program.
10. Students may progress into the tenth grade of the regular academic program if they have acquired at least two high school credits.
11. Others may go the vocational training route and are likely to complete their courses at least one year earlier than the high school program graduates.
12. Those completing the vocational training program may look forward to job placement.
13. Those completing high school may look forward to job placement, or preferably to advanced vocational training or higher education.
14. Two years of practical arts training is required for all students.
15. For those students who will be placed on jobs, or who will enroll for further technical training beyond the high school, two years of vocational training is recommended.

The need for individual counseling was stressed throughout the workshop. Each student will need wise counseling at every step of the way. He will have to make decisions at each step that will have significant influence on his future. Should he take practical arts and vocational training while he is at the elementary level? Should he go the academic route, taking only practical arts

courses? Should he take vocational training beginning in the ninth grade? What route should he take after he leaves school?

In addition to working on the organization for getting as many as possible of these overage students into high school, the members devoted some time to developing curriculum guides for the program. Time did not permit more than a beginning on this part of the program; however, it will be continued at the different schools during the year. And the group recommended that another workshop be planned for the next summer.

The group was fortunate in having the assistance of two Indian tribal representatives who contributed much background information and made all participants acutely aware of Indian parents' aspirations for their children.

It was the feeling of this writer that the workshop members returned to their respective schools determined to give every boy and girl who coveted it, an opportunity for a high school diploma, regardless of the educational deficit he has to overcome to get it.

6. PROFESSIONAL ORIENTATION

EACH YEAR THE NAVAJO AGENCY has a 2-week session for teachers who will be teaching Navajo children for the first time.

The entire session is devoted to the special professional training these teachers need if they are to perform at the level of efficiency expected of them. Orientation by other Branches such as Personnel is necessary, but it is given at other times and places. Each phase of orientation—by Education, by Personnel, and by others—is of sufficient importance to merit careful, undivided attention until the aims of the Branch are achieved.

In the planning of the professional session in 1962, careful consideration was given to the previous workshops and to their results. While particular effort was made to retain

the strengths of former workshops, some desirable changes in direction were made. First, there was some reduction in the scope of former offerings in order to give attention to a more limited number of problems and interests, and fewer people were used in leadership roles. Second, in the group discussions there was increased emphasis on the direct and immediate concerns of the teachers. Especially was this true in the followup discussion of the demonstration classes which were analyzed quite thoroughly. And third, resource people from outside the Agency focused their attention on providing direct assistance to the workshop leaders as they made preparation for working with the enrollees on specific projects.

Organization of the Workshop

The workshop was organized under the following general headings:

1. Planning. The work involved a study of the philosophy of Indian education, and of how it is put into practice in Navajo education. It, also, included analysis of the curriculum guides of the Bureau and public schools, and of ways to make the best possible uses of them. The result was a good beginning on yearly program planning, on unit or "block" planning, and on planning for individual lessons.

2. Demonstration Classes. A first grade and a fourth grade were used as demonstration classes. Each enrollee observed a daily period of demonstration teaching, at which his discussion leaders were present.

3. Discussions. Each teacher participated in a daily discussion session with a group of approximately 20 people, led by education specialists, principals, or academic department heads. The discussion dealt with the demonstration class observed earlier in the day. The participants analyzed and evaluated the aims and objectives of the teacher and the pupils, the plans used, the methods and materials used, and the results of the work.

4. Reading. All teachers participated in a study of reading programs for young Nav-

ajo pupils, particularly with respect to commercially prepared materials and techniques for using them. This study emphasized the organization of a reading program, preparation of pupils and teacher for the classes, effective materials and techniques to be used, realistic use of teachers' guides, independent pupil work, and evaluation and followup of results.

5. English as a Second Language. Classes were held in which only the Navajo language was used, and in which the new teachers took the roles of pupils. Experience with this technique has shown that it helps non-Navajo-speaking people to get some insight into the problems of non-English-speaking Navajo youngsters in their first weeks and months of school. This is always an "eye opener" and very often teachers ask for more time on it than can be managed.

Discussions were held with enrollees on the basic differences in the construction and phonetics of the English and the Navajo languages; on other problems that Navajo pupils face in mastering English; and on some of the techniques used in Bureau schools which are effective in teaching English.

In the demonstration classes the development of English was emphasized at all times. Not only was attention given to developing facility in the mechanics of English, both in special periods and as a part of each lesson or activity but also experiences were provided for concept formulation which would give life and meaning to teaching and learning the mechanics of the language and to the drills provided for establishing speech habits. In short, it was demonstrated to the enrollees that the teaching of English should be carried on during all other teaching.

6. Arts and Crafts. Experiences in a variety of arts and crafts for young children involved all of the new teachers in order to acquaint them with a wide variety of suitable activities, methods, and materials.

7. Exhibits. Schools in the Subagencies sent exhibits of classwork of special interest and value which had been carried on the

year before. These exhibits attracted much interest of the new teachers.

8. Guidance. A series of meetings was held with some of the enrollees to discuss the aims, methods, and the results of guidance services to young school children. At a general session a panel discussion was presented on guidance and its place in the school program. This was partially an outgrowth of the work of the guidance group, with others drawn in; and was an effort to share the work with those not taking part in this class.

9. Navajo Culture. Special discussions were led by supervisors, some of whom were Navajos, which dealt with the basic beliefs, customs, habits, and practices of the families and communities where the enrollees would teach. The purpose was to provide assistance to new teachers for moving as smoothly as possible into association with their pupils and with their communities.

Several trips were arranged for the teachers to visit, one or more times, during the late day and early evening hours in nearby Navajo homes, or to attend representative community functions. These visits have been carried on for a number of years as a part of the workshop and have always proved to be a popular and helpful resource. In turn, Navajo people of communities adjacent to the Wingate School (the location of the conferences) have been most hospitable and helpful, and seem to have developed a feeling of responsibility, and even proprietorship, in assisting with the orientation of new teachers.

10. Visits by Area, Agency, and Subagency Officials. Although every day was open to official visitors, a special visiting day was designated for the Area, the Agency, and the Subagencies at which time the officials discussed matters of particular importance with the workshop group. They, also, observed many of the classes, and visited informally with the teachers.

Summary

This was a well-planned workshop, based

on the Agency's many years of professional experience in planning and conducting orientation sessions for teachers. The leaders were dedicated to their responsibilities, and most of them had had several years of experience in this type of work.

The two most important attitudes of the teachers appeared to be openmindedness toward the problems to be dealt with and high interest in participating in the work.

One recommendation which may be of some assistance to those planning another session is that in planning for the demonstration classes, two highly skilled teachers—one for the teacher's role and one to serve as an assistant and standby—be selected for each class several months in advance. This arrangement would provide sufficient time for the teachers, their supervisors, and the director of the workshop to plan for the very best demonstration possible. It would give the teachers the advantage of special professional attention while they were being "groomed" for a highly skilled task.

A second recommendation for future workshops is that more time be allotted to the study of how Agency schools implement the Bureau's educational philosophy. Until now the period devoted to planning incorporated this topic; but experience shows more time is needed for analysis of both topics and for making plans to put them into use.

Participation in a workshop can be an enlivening experience for the staff as well as for the enrollees. This is particularly true in one such as the Navajo orientation session where there is careful planning, where there are worthwhile projects, and where a cooperative and professional atmosphere prevails throughout.

7. ORIENTATION: FIRST INVESTMENT IN NEW TEACHERS

HAVING INDICATED HIS DESIRE to accept employment with the Bureau of In-

dian Affairs, a prospective teacher expects that he will have to adjust to the new location in which he will be working, and the processes and the organizational structure that are already in effect at the location. He wants to succeed in his new work and to prepare himself for advancement as opportunities develop. He comes to his new assignment with an open mind, willing in most instances to make whatever reasonable changes may be required of him to carry out his duties in a manner that will be acceptable to his supervisor and to the organization.

The orientation program, from the earliest communications, is the Bureau's first and golden opportunity to utilize this favorable attitude and to insure its continuance. This opportunity may never come again in just the same way. It is the Bureau's responsibility to make sure that the orientation program helps new teachers get off to a good start.

The properly planned orientation program may be divided into three steps: (a) the pre-service assistance which is given a teacher before he reports for duty, (b) the assistance given him when he reports for duty and shortly thereafter, and (c) the followup assistance that is given him from time to time during his first year or so of service. We shall limit this article to a discussion of steps (a) and (b).

Preservice Assistance

The prospective teacher wants to know many things about the organization with which he is considering employment, his duties, and the conditions under which he will work. He may be apprehensive about accepting a position that requires him or his family to live at a location unfamiliar to him. He may have some doubt about his ability to work with a people about whom he knows very little or nothing. To put his final acceptance of an offer in writing may take considerable courage and he needs accurate, honest answers to the questions he asks.

The prospective teacher wants to know

the location where he will work, the kind of housing that will be provided for his family, some background on the schools his children will attend, the climate, the nearest shopping center where he can obtain groceries and clothing and certain services for his family. If he is told that he will work in an isolated location, he wonders just how isolated it may be. He wonders, too, about the 125 miles of dirt road over which he will have to travel to take his children to the doctor or dentist, and whether the road is open the year round. He will most certainly want to know something about pay days, leave benefits, work hours, his duties, and his opportunities for promotion. If he has recently been to the expense of earning a degree, if he is a man with a fairly large family, or if for any other reason he has only limited financial resources he may want to know about facilities for obtaining credit until he has received his first pay check. The applicant, who has received accurate, informative answers to his inquiries and has received them early enough to use as a basis for making a final decision can start off on the journey to his assignment with confidence and a good attitude toward his new employment.

The Area personnel officer and the new teacher's supervisor usually share responsibility for providing this preservice assistance. Some Areas have prepared a booklet of general information for distribution to new employees, and a fact sheet about each school. A committee keeps these materials current so that both items can be sent out promptly. A friendly letter from the personnel officer may transmit these materials. A second friendly letter (not a form letter) from his supervisor will give the new teacher added assurance and confidence. The preparation of the letters need take only such time as may be required to assure the teacher that he is needed and wanted, that he will receive a friendly welcome, and that assistance in adjusting to his new assignment and the community will be provided. Time so

spent will pay big dividends.

On-duty Assistance

The new teacher receives his first on-duty assistance from the Area personnel officer or a member of his staff. From him the new teacher receives his first introduction to the Bureau. His papers are processed by the personnel officer, and from him the teacher learns about the conditions of his employment. When the agency employs a large number of teachers and all new teachers are brought together for orientation before they begin teaching, the initial interview in the Personnel Section may be somewhat brief if the personnel officer assists with the larger program and can give more detailed information at that time. More time will be required for the initial interview if only one teacher is reporting for duty since this may be the only opportunity to give the individual all the information he should have about his rights, privileges, and responsibilities, his probation period, insurance, retirement, and the like.

What has been said with regard to the personnel officer's initial assistance to a new teacher is equally true with regard to the first assistance which his supervisor gives him. If he is the only teacher reporting for duty, the first interview will be longer and provide more detailed help. If he will attend an orientation workshop later, it can be briefer and less detailed.

In either case the new teacher's first concerns are (a) getting his papers properly processed so that he is entered on duty and (b) getting himself or his family settled in the new location. He and his family will probably be tired from their trip and it may well be that his impression of the entire organization will be colored by the quality of the first greetings he receives and the condition and appearance of the quarters assigned for his use. If the local staff takes time to give him a warm, friendly, and unhurried greeting he will immediately feel wanted and welcome. If his quarters are clean and in good repair, with utilities

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working as they should, he will probably be willing to make some allowances for their not being completely modern and convenient and not being suited to the size of his family. This may not be inservice education but the teacher's first impression of his new supervisor, associates, and his quarters is important in preparing him for successful orientation or frustrating him to the point where he is not receptive to it. He will not be ready to learn about his new job until he is comfortably and reasonably happy in his new situation.

Planning the Orientation Program

Presumably the new teacher is now ready for orientation—his first inservice education. If he is the only one entering on duty he must receive individual orientation. Where group orientation is possible the more formal program can extend over an entire work week and top officials and technicians from several branches can be called upon to serve as speakers, discussion leaders, etc.

What, then, shall be the orientation program for new teachers, and who will plan it and conduct it? Obviously, the teachers' supervisors will provide the leadership for both planning and conducting the program and they should work cooperatively to decide the objectives of the program, what they should accomplish, the broad goals and how they can be reached. They will not want to do it by themselves, however. They will want to make use of the knowledge, skills, and talents of the members of their staffs and to call on people from various categories of work—adult Indians, missionaries, traders, and others who can contribute importantly to the program. Who can best discuss the objectives and functions of the Bureau and the philosophy of Indian education? Who can give a brief history of the local Indian people and talk with accuracy about their present status? Who is prepared or can prepare himself to talk with authority about the problems in Indian education? Who can explain the use of the Minimum

Essential Goals and why they should be used as guides by Bureau teachers? Will there be demonstration teaching? Who can do this best? Will there be opportunities for recreation and socialization? Who will be responsible for them? Who can work out the mechanics of the program best? Who will compile a list of suggested readings for the new teachers? Much planning has to be done and each Area or Agency or large school will want to make its own plans to meet the needs of its new teachers. But whatever the plans, it is essential that they be made carefully with the overall objective in mind; that as much as, but no more than the new teachers can absorb be planned for presentation; that the best people available be utilized to conduct the program.

Enhancing the Investment

An investment in new employees has been made. Unlike many investments it has involved no financial risk. Unlike many investments the returns are sure, and the greater the wisdom and understanding that have gone into the investment the greater the returns. If properly planned and carried out the orientation program will have played a big role in acquainting new teachers with their work, how their work fits into the work of the organization, and how it relates to the work of others, to the environment, and the people with whom they will work. And, well-informed employees have a better attitude toward their work and make better staff members. As educational leaders we dare not fail to make this investment, which will pay such big dividends to Indian people, to the Bureau, and to the new teachers themselves, as valuable an asset as our combined efforts can make it.

8. STAFF MEETINGS: INSERVICE EDUCATION

THIS DISCUSSION OF STAFF MEETINGS is the first in a series of articles on inservice training. A new school year is al-

ready under way. Once again, school administrators and their staffs have accepted the serious, although challenging, responsibility for providing a high quality program that will serve the educational needs of Indian boys and girls and hold their interest throughout the year.

In a way this article is presented as a challenge to both administrators and their coworkers—a challenge to prove, during this school year, that staff meetings can further the professional growth of the entire staff and that the school's programs can be improved thereby. If you accept the challenge, here are some suggestions that may be helpful.

There must be well-defined, justifiable purposes for scheduling staff meetings and the purposes must be understood and justifiable in the thinking of the staff as well as the administrator. We have purposely decided to discuss this phase first, because there would be little need to discuss other factors if there were no well-defined purposes for holding the meetings. Members of a school staff are, in general, busy, hard-working, conscientious people. They are usually interested in and eager to participate in meetings when they feel that the meetings are of value to them. They resent, and with good reason, a usurpation of their time for meetings which bring about no tangible benefits to them or to the school program—meetings which are held to make announcements or give out information which can be disseminated equally well through memoranda.

Once all members of the staff have agreed that something of value to them and to the school program will be accomplished through group meetings, the mechanics pertinent to the meeting can be worked out. All of these are important, and seeking the answers to the questions that must be answered will provide many opportunities for the staff to use and test their ingenuity and ability to make good decisions.

The superintendent or the principal in charge of a larger school will provide top

leadership for determining the mechanics, but to be sure that he has his staff with him he, perhaps, will want to work them out with a planning committee chosen from and by his staff. In the smaller schools the principal-teacher and his entire staff can work as a planning committee. The committee will decide such questions as the frequency of the meetings. Will they be held weekly, biweekly, or once a month? Once the frequency has been decided, will the meetings be given priority over other activities? Where will they be held? Is there an attractive, well-ventilated place outside the classroom where comfortable chairs and suitable working space are available for all participants? If not, can a classroom be rearranged to make it comfortable and functional for an adult group? At what hour will the meetings be held: a before-school hour, an after-school hour, an hour released from classtime, in the evening, on a Saturday? A combination of hours? Shall there be a coffee break before, during, or after the meeting? Shall some meetings be social in nature? Who will plan the meetings: the superintendent, the principal, a standing committee, or a designated committee for each meeting? How will the theme for the meetings be determined: by the superintendent, the principal, through questionnaires which give the staff's recommendations, or by a committee? Who will conduct the meetings: the staff members in alphabetical order, volunteer staff members, the principal, the superintendent, a consultant, or an education specialist? What will be the ground rules, who will determine them, and who will be responsible for seeing that they are observed? What about attendance, shall it be voluntary or required?

The administrator who involves his entire staff in making these and other determinations provides unlimited opportunities for his own professional growth and that of his staff. This is not an easy matter as the experienced school administrator knows. On first thought it may seem simple enough to

EDUCATION FOR CROSS-CULTURAL ENRICHMENT

schedule staff meetings in the school calendar and talk to the group if he has time or cancel the meeting if desk work, athletic events, or the weather interferes. The experienced school administrator knows that this doesn't bring the results desired by him or his staff. He knows time and thought must be given to the tasks and that much hard work is a prerequisite to achievement. What are some of the results that can be realized through good staff meetings?

For the administrator they can provide the avenue for becoming better acquainted with the members of his staff. Through observation of their participation he can discover their talents, their strengths, their needs, the areas in which they need to develop greater skills, and their professional growth as the meetings progress. If there are opportunities for communication to flow freely both up and down the scale, the administrator will be able to determine the trouble spots and to chart a course for correcting them. To some extent, the administrator will be on trial during the meetings. He does have authority, of course, to give directives and to make final decisions and there are occasions when he must exercise this authority. But this authority does not in itself earn staff respect for his professional competency. Neither does it give the members confidence and faith in him as a leader and administrator, nor promote their feeling of security. Members of his staff will be looking for certain qualities which they expect an administrator to possess, and in staff meetings he has the chance to demonstrate his professional and personal attributes in a way that will make them proud to be working on his team. This is his chance to provide the quality of leadership that makes the best use of the individual talents of staff members, and at the same time to promote the desire to work together to accomplish common objectives.

Through the meetings the administrator can keep his staff informed of school philosophy and policies and develop a better

understanding and acceptance of them. Through staff meetings the administrator can also sense the pulse of the school. Here the administrator has the chance to prove that democracy is at work in his administration. He can demonstrate his willingness to have his point of view and his opinions challenged; to change if the group can convince him that he should. Of particular value is the opportunity staff meetings give him to make important decisions on the basis of group thinking. These are only a few of the values; each administrator will know of others. But a final goal for every administrator should be the inspiration of his staff, the inspiration to work together for the good of the students and the welfare of the group and the school. If he can do this, he will have proved himself a strong developer of people.

For the staff the possibilities for professional growth through staff meetings are unlimited. Each member can have opportunities to prove his skills as a participant in group meetings, as a leader, as a planner. Each member can improve his ability to participate in decision-making—decisions based on facts, on research, on experience, on consideration of the thinking of those who will be affected by the decision, on ability to withhold judgment until all the facts have been gathered and considered. Here problems can be attacked and staff members can work together to find solutions for them. Here there is opportunity for staff members to become better acquainted with one another, to learn each other's talents and strengths and when and where to lend a helping hand. Staff meetings provide one of the better ways for each worker to gain a better understanding of the school's philosophy, policies, aims; and to be sure that he is supporting those that have been established. Here also is the opportunity for each staff member to express his ideas and views, to become a contributing member of an ongoing serious-minded, progressive organization. There can be innumerable opportuni-

ties to increase skills in curriculum development, policy-making, organization, etc. All this adds up to preparation for the next step in the promotional field. It also adds up to better performance in the present job. Teachers can develop a greater realization of the need for better planning for and with their students, a greater skill in assisting their students to become better participants, better leaders, better planners, better decision-makers. Other workers, too, can improve their skills in planning, organizing, making decisions, delegating responsibility. But, here again, staff members will benefit from the meetings only if they, too, accept responsibility for making them worthwhile.

And when the year draws to a close, what of the staff meetings? Have they been profitable and enjoyable? Have both the administrator and the staff improved their performance as a result of their participation in them? Are the benefits which have accrued to the students and staff and school in direct proportion to the time that was spent in planning and participation? Was attendance voluntary? Was it regular? Was it one hundred percent? What were the most gratifying results? What were the weaknesses? Will they be held again next year? Who will evaluate the meetings? Where? How? You be the judge. The decision is yours.

9. SHALL WE TALK TOGETHER?

ONE OF THE MOST EFFECTIVE FORMS of inservice education is the personal conference, though as such it often passes unrecognized. Employees have been heard to remark somewhat plaintively that they have never had the benefit of inservice education when in truth they may have absorbed ideas and attitudes through personal conferences which have swung the balance between success and failure.

In some work situations, conferences between people with common interest and

problems occur many times daily. They may be casual conversations, problems-of-the-moment discussions, or planned conferences. All of them hold possibilities for the educative process of change in the discussants. Valuable information on Bureau philosophy, approved procedures, and job techniques may even be exchanged over the office cup of coffee.

The teacher being confined throughout the working day to the task of teaching children is denied much of this opportunity for the impromptu conference with professional associates. This is particularly true of the teacher in the isolated day school who is provided by the peculiar circumstances of his employment first with a feast then a famine. During the orientation period planned by the Area Office for the new teacher enroute to his assigned station many conferences are held, but after he is established at the school, opportunities for conferring on professional problems are limited to infrequent visits of supervisory personnel.

The nature and purpose of these conferences place them in two categories which might be labeled orientation and evaluation. The circumstances under which they are held eliminate the easy casual exchange of ideas enjoyed in a less-hurried conference. The urgent need to cover, in a limited time, the problems which would ordinarily be the subjects for discussion through many meetings is ever present. This places a value on words which gems cannot equal.

Consider the orientation conference between the teacher enroute to an isolated winter and the education specialist at the Area Office. This may be the only contact they will have with each other for weeks, months, or possibly a year. What is of major importance in this interview? Problems of curriculum? Of classroom organization? The teacher, weighed down with travel fatigue and the effort to absorb many new and confusing impressions, most certainly will not be able to recall detailed, technical advice when the classroom is finally reached. But

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if he can leave the conference reassured by a feeling of "we-ness," by an impression of teamwork which can be taken into isolation to lessen the impact of that overwhelming feeling of "aloneness"; if he can be given the assurance that whatever problems he will encounter will be shared by the administrator and supervisory personnel, then the conference will have served a good purpose.

To accomplish this in one meeting requires a genuine concern for the welfare of the teacher on the part of the supervisor and an appreciation of his potential worth as a contributing member of the team. The art of listening has great value here. Given an opportunity, the teacher may acquaint the supervisor with the areas of teaching wherein he will need technical assistance, thus paving the way to future cooperative teamwork. Encouraged by a sympathetic listener many anxieties may be dispelled through the asking of seemingly trivial questions.

The post-classroom-observation conference which is a necessary part of a visit to any school is made doubly important to the teacher at the isolated station by reason of its infrequency and the limited time which can be given to it. The farsighted teacher will make known to the specialist his most troublesome problems in a previsit communication. Forewarned, the specialist has time for collecting pertinent information and materials to bring to the conference.

Yielding to the pressure of time, the supervisor often is tempted to plunge into a conference immediately after the end of the school day. Though individuals differ greatly in respect to physical endurance, it is doubtful if a fatigued teacher can benefit greatly from a discussion at this zero hour. Certainly a brief rest and a cup of coffee would be in order before an analysis of the classroom program is begun. Probably it would be well to let the teacher choose the time best suited to his convenience.

Not only does the time factor present problems, but also the place. The classroom is often in the process of being cleaned, or

else is the scene of another meeting; the quarters are occupied by the teacher's family. Many teacher-parents seem to feel their own children are no handicap to a good conference. This, of course, is merely the mistaken idea of a fond parent under which many potentially good discussions have been buried. If the teacher owes himself anything at all it is to find a quiet time and a quiet room where his classroom program can be discussed without interruption.

If there are two words which both teacher and specialist should keep in mind during the post-classroom-visit conference, they are **objectivity** and **maturity**. To derive maximum value from the time spent, both the good techniques and the poor must be considered. Emotional involvement on the part of the observer or the observed will cloud the ability to make judgments, and threaten the possibility of establishing the good relationship essential to future cooperative effort. Sometimes it happens that a supervisor finds it necessary to be critical of a plan for learning in which the teacher believes wholeheartedly. Tolerance, forbearance, and mutual respect for each other's opinion must be brought to bear on the subject. A wise specialist will suggest further study and research. A teacher with maturity of judgment will follow the suggestion in a sincere effort to evaluate the method in question.

This is learning at its best. It is centered on a problem of vital interest to the teacher who extends his professional skills through active involvement in study and research. Used in this manner, the conference can overcome some of the handicaps of isolation and lead to the most effective type of inservice training.

10. TEACHER AND EDUCATION SPECIALIST WORK TOGETHER

FIFTEEN YEARS AGO I arrived on the Navajo Reservation to teach two or three

years at the most. I had taught in English-speaking communities and had great confidence in myself as a teacher. In an oral interview I had been told that I would need to do things over and over until they became a part of the child's life. I knew I could do that. But I soon found that some of the methods which had been successful in other schools did not work with the Indian pupils. In trying to find myself, I was drifting when a supervisor visited me.

That visit was the turning point in my teaching career; and I stayed on. I was shown how to use experience charts to teach reading. I was reluctant to change my methods, but I gave it a try and it worked. I learned how to use the appropriate mechanics in recording the children's exciting experience stories. Later, I had another visitor who asked me the purpose of a mimeograph picture the children had just colored. I couldn't answer intelligently because the reason was not clear in my own mind. If I could hurdle one obstacle, I could others. From then on, classroom work became individualized, creative, and had a definite purpose. The children became interested and the classroom became a workshop.

An education specialist who is friendly, sympathetic, tolerant, and understanding, working in harmony with the teacher, can help him to improve skills and to become sensitized to the values of positive teaching methods. An education specialist who places the emphasis on the teaching situation, and not on the teacher, can ease the procedure of visits and conferences and not leave the teacher with a feeling of fear and insecurity. The teacher, too, must have an objective viewpoint toward working with the education specialist.

There should be rapport between them where no qualms exist. This may be easily accomplished by a friendly gesture, a few well-spoken words, or even by facial expressions. I had no misgivings when an education specialist asked me if I would like for her to take over my story hour. I relaxed and

enjoyed the experience and also learned how much English can be taught when one lives a story and makes it come to life.

A teacher should take the initiative in securing help whenever necessary. Through the supervising principal, the aid of the education specialist can be obtained to help solve a specific problem.

A teacher is a human being who has attributes, skills, and know-how; a person who likes to try out his own methods and knowledge unmolested; but there are times when the teacher and education specialist need to learn from each other, and refine their processes and techniques. By working together, desirable performance standards can be set up, a basic purpose established, and final goals outlined.

If I were a teacher new to teaching Indians, I would like for the education specialist to help me to understand the value of gaining insight into the cultural and social background of the children. I would like for her to help me find ways to get this insight so that my teaching would be more effective. Most certainly, I would want to know what a vital role the Minimum Essential Goals can play in the education of the Indian child. Too, I would need help in developing methods for achieving these goals, and making them a part of the excitement of everyday living. I would appreciate a discussion of the necessity of using over and over a controlled vocabulary so that the English expressions would become a part of the child's language. This education specialist would be of help to me, a teacher of non-English-speaking children, if she told me how a few appropriate words spoken in his own language might set a disturbed child at ease. Most of all, I would like some help in adapting the teaching methods which I had brought with me to meet the special needs of the children I was now teaching; some suggestions on how to teach children to work independently and in groups; and how to aid the slow learner and the physically handicapped child who need a sense of progressing and a feeling of

belonging.

If workbooks were a part of the school curriculum, I would want to know how to use them to create challenging assignments to meet individual needs. I would like suggestions on how to guide the children to use centers of interest so they might develop freedom of action and speech, and use these work centers in other constructive ways.

A discussion by the education specialist of what the Bureau of Indian Affairs expects of teachers of Indian children would give me a feeling of security as I start teaching. As I perform my duties, I would like for her to give me recognition and praise when merited; to arrange followup visits and personal conferences; and to help me to evaluate my work objectively.

The education specialist is also a human being who has knowledge about children, curriculum, how to work with others, and has an understanding of how to deal with problems. She is a person who knows from a teacher's reactions how helpful her suggestions have been, but she is one who also likes recognition. Let her know how much she has helped you. It works both ways.

a knowledge or understanding of the overall goals. Will this be the case if the staff has a part in determining these goals and in having opportunities to discuss them? When the goals are important to the group, will not each member have a feeling of responsibility toward their accomplishment?

It is a generally accepted idea that staff members who have had a part in making decisions and in planning are concerned much more about and interested in the job to be done than those who have had no opportunity to participate. Most people are anxious to improve in their work. Most of us want to learn to do the job better. We have problems and want an opportunity to discuss them. We welcome opportunities to make and get suggestions for improvement. Is participation, then, the key to interest and inspiration? If so, shouldn't we be planning our staff meetings for maximum participation by all members?

If participation in our meetings is what we are after, we need to give attention to those things which will be conducive to comfort and relaxation. What kind of meeting place do we need? When will we meet? Is a classroom a good meeting place? Are such things as lighting, temperature, and ventilation important?

Often meetings are held in classrooms where desks are too small for adults and where it is necessary for all but the leader to face in one direction. It is more pleasant to meet in a comfortable room in which chairs can be placed in an informal arrangement so that people may be able to see and hear each other easily. Individuals are much more likely to feel free to express themselves in a meeting where they are able to see each other face to face. They prefer this more friendly, relaxed atmosphere.

The time element is an important one. A time should be found when members of the group will not be worried or hurried by other duties. Many times meetings are crammed with too many things to be accomplished in the allotted time. Meetings should be

11. INDIFFERENCE OR PARTICIPATION AND INSPIRATION

AFACULTY MEETING, for the most part, brings about one of two feelings, either a feeling of indifference or one of inspiration.

The purpose for having a faculty meeting should be considered. When the purpose of the meeting is to give out information which could be disseminated by memorandum, then is it small wonder that feelings of indifference follow? Or, should it be a time for helping the group identify and find solutions to its problems?

Does your staff have a hand in formulating the goals of your organization? It often is true that members of a staff do not have

brought to a close at the time stated.

It is desirable that the meetings have a social phase, even though it may be no more than a cup of coffee over which people may relax for the first few minutes of the meeting. This not only gives the participants a chance to know each other better but helps to create a feeling of unity.

If meetings are to be organized around the needs and interests of the staff, the group will not be assigned topics nor pushed into selecting subjects for study. It will be necessary to find out from the members what they wish to discuss when they meet, what their interests are, what real problems they are facing, what questions they have, what they would like to learn more about, and what they want to work on in the way of self-improvement.

After determining which problems are of common interest and concern, the group will need to find ways of working together, of organizing into committees with each member taking his share of the work to be done. As people become responsible for the different jobs in these meetings, interest will be stimulated and they will regard them as **their meetings**.

Various techniques are used in improving meetings and making them more interesting. Role playing is one of the newer techniques used to bring out areas in which the group is interested. It not only provides opportunities for active participation by group members but also is considered a good human relations training method. In role playing, a group watches some of its members act out a skit. Then discussion follows the performance. The purpose is not entertainment nor merely to stimulate discussion. Role playing can easily be overdone and misdirected and is not of much value unless the problems dramatized are real ones to the group. There are many situations where role playing can be used as an effective technique such as in orientation of new personnel to their jobs and other reality situations.

Some groups use the discussion technique in conducting many of their meetings. In this method, there is the advantage of opportunity for the help of many people in solving a problem. Every member is considered as one who has something worthwhile to contribute. Each person comes to the meeting with specific information and experience. It is often said that "two minds are better than one," **and many minds are better than two!**

The demonstration technique can be used to show how to carry out a suggested method or procedure such as how to use equipment, how to make a tape recording, or to show techniques in the use of the soundscriber, as well as the development of a reading lesson.

Meetings are made much more interesting and meaningful through the use of audio-visual aids. Graphs, charts, blackboard work, maps, illustrations, samples, models, photographs, slides, motion pictures, filmstrips, recordings, and field trips can be used for arousing attention, holding interest, stimulating discussion, and furnishing resource material for the group.

The help of resource persons such as education specialists and other experts in the community is sought by many groups in working out solutions to their problems.

Evaluation is a part of good faculty meetings. This can be done through end-of-meeting reaction sheets, evaluation panels, interviewing members of the group, by followup to determine how or if people have been helped to improve and whether or not they apply what they have learned, and whether or not the group has a feeling of progress toward accomplishing their goals.

In summary, an effective faculty meeting is:

- Based on the needs of the group as THEY see them
- Planned for and by the members of the group
- A time for sharing, with each one feeling that every other member has

- something of worth to contribute
- A time when people are talked to or with, but never at
- Held in pleasant surroundings with an absence of tension
- Something to look forward to with anticipation
- Accomplishing the purposes of the group.

Then, instead of indifference, we have participation and inspiration!

12. EACH ONE TEACH ONE

THE BUREAU OF INDIAN AFFAIRS, like other large organizations, selects people from within its own ranks for promotion to positions of increasing responsibility. One of the cardinal principles of management is to make certain that in selecting individuals for promotion, competent people are chosen.

To meet its own needs, the Bureau of Indian Affairs conducts various types of inservice education and training programs. Many such inservice training programs are aimed primarily at improvement of performance of individuals in their present positions. Other training programs are aimed specifically at developing the leadership skills of selected employees, with promotion as the objective. Through its training programs, the Bureau hopes to create a reservoir of promising personnel capable of assuming increasingly difficult responsibilities.

In the Branch of Education the reservoir of potential candidates for promotion resulting from formal training programs is never sufficient to fill the vacancies that occur. Therefore, most frequently, individuals are chosen from the ranks with no pretraining for the higher responsibility. Through this method both the organization and the individual are taking chances. The organization takes the chance that, through trial and error at the higher level, the individual will be able to render satisfactory service. If too many errors are made, the organization suf-

fers. The individual takes the chance of jeopardizing his career. If he makes the grade, well and good. If he is thrust into responsibilities beyond him and fails, the unsuccessful experience may jeopardize any future chances for him. This method is wasteful for both the organization and the individual.

In the interest of both the organization and the individual, the most careful consideration should be given to the selection of individuals for advancement to positions of greater responsibility. The selection certainly should never be done on a personal basis. Neither should the selection be made solely on the basis of personality. Often in selecting an individual for promotion his personal skills are given too much weight, and too little attention is given to the other characteristics he must have to be successful in the position. We are blinded too often by his personality, and never get beneath it to the knowledge he must have of the job that he will be expected to perform, and his ability to put that knowledge to work. We do such an individual a disservice by placing him in a position which requires more than a pleasing personality which, incidently, most positions do—in fact, all positions in education.

Sufficient knowledge of the area of work and sufficient skills to put that knowledge to work are of prime consideration. Then personal skills to support knowledge and ability should receive consideration.

We will all concede that perhaps the most satisfactory way of preparing individuals for promotion to positions of greater responsibility in the field of education is through formal training programs, where the individuals are released from actual duties for the training periods and then placed in the positions for which they received the training. In practice we cannot always do this—seldom do it. On the other hand, we know that the quality of the educational program is directly related to the competency of the people moving up the leadership ladder. What can we do, in an organization the size of ours,

to select and promote the most competent individuals for promotion?

In this Bureau, I am convinced there is much leadership talent lying fallow because it has not been discovered and developed. It is the duty of each person in a position of leadership to discover potential candidates for advancement among employees under his supervision. After the potential leadership is discovered, the next step is development of the potential—not immediate recommendation for promotion, which is too often the case. Development of an individual through his day-to-day work beyond the requirements of his present job prepares him for greater responsibilities when the opportunities come. Such development requires right attitudes on the part of both the employee and his immediate supervisor. The employee must be willing to accept responsibilities beyond those outlined in his present job. He must be willing to do more than his present job requires. His immediate supervisor must be willing to provide him with selected experiences beyond the requirements of the present job that will contribute to the employee's growth. The supervisor must know how to arrange such experiences in the sequence that will strengthen an employee's weaknesses, and produce rounded growth. When the employee has grown through such planned experiences beyond his present job and the opportunity comes for promotion, the supervisor must then be willing to push the individual forward on the basis of his readiness for promotion. He must be willing to release him even though it means extra effort to train other less competent or new employees to keep the work of his own department or school moving forward in high gear. The supervisor must be big enough, also, to accept without jealousy the fact that, once given the opportunity, some individuals he has trained in his school or department may move up the promotion ladder faster than he himself moves. Most

supervisors are big in that respect and instead of resentment, they get a great deal of satisfaction in seeing employees they have trained receive greater and greater recognition.

In addition to preparing employees for advancement outside his department or school, every individual in a leadership position should try to have someone in his organization ready to step into his own position when he steps out. The preparation can be provided, also, by giving promising individuals in the organization experiences that will prepare them to step up and take the position he leaves. The administrator or supervisor who carries on his work by involving others to the greatest possible extent is at the same time providing opportunity for employee growth as well as getting the job done in a democratic way. By this approach, he is providing experiences that both broaden employees and deepen their understanding of working relationships with one another.

Some people have argued that leadership is an inherent quality in some people and that they are the ones who eventually become administrators. Have you heard the term "born leader"? It may be true that some individuals possess stronger leadership aptitudes than others. But research indicates that those with strong leadership aptitudes can improve their skill and those lacking the special aptitude can improve their performance by training.

Administrators in the Bureau schools are only trustees of the positions they hold, as is evidenced by the number of promotions and transfers each year. Do you have someone on your staff who could step into your position tomorrow morning? Do you have someone on your staff in training or ready for promotion outside your department or school? Why not begin now to teach one—or better still, more than one?

12

GOALS FOR THE FUTURE

1. GOALS FOR THE FUTURE

ANYONE who is conversant with the history of Indian education knows full well when one speaks in averages that Indians by comparison with the general population are undereducated. The reasons are many: historical lack of schools; lack of interest in education on the part of some groups; geographical isolation; and cultural differences, to name only a few.

The changes that are swiftly affecting us all are affecting Indians even to a greater degree. No longer can Indians isolate themselves against an automated and technological world, even if they wished to do so, which is not their wish. Indians wish to become a part of a modern world, and to do so they realize that they must be educated. Consequently, they are, in far larger numbers than ever before, taking advantage of the educational opportunities available to them. Children are staying in school longer; adults are seeking general and vocational education opportunities to upgrade their knowledge and skills; and in greater numbers each year, Indians are enrolling in colleges and technical schools.

This same type of impetus in education of all types is evident in the general population. College enrollments are increasing rapidly; more junior colleges are bringing greater educational opportunities to local communities; the Area Redevelopment Act and the Manpower Development Training Act, as well as the National Defense Education Act, have accelerated educational opportunities for all citizens. Consequently, the educational level of the general popula-

tion has risen, and is expected to rise rapidly in the near future. Certain projections indicate that, due to changing needs and increased national and State interest and support of education, 75-80 percent of the high-school-age youth will complete high school by 1970, and 40 percent of the high school graduates will go to college.

If this happens, which no doubt it will, where will Indians be in 1970 by comparison? In the 1950's the median educational level of Indians was about half of that of the general population. At the same time the percentage of Indians enrolled in college was about one-fourth of the national average. Indians in the last decade,教育ally speaking, trailed the national population.

Today, as a result of the interest of Indians in education, and the interest of the Congress in meeting the need, school facilities are being provided rapidly. The goal of a school seat for each Indian child of school age is within sight, if nothing unforeseen happens to delay its achievement.

Adequate school facilities will not in themselves give Indians the educational advantages they need to compete favorably with their fellow citizens in today's complex world. If no other goals are set, Indians in the future, as they have done in the past, will trail the general population in education.

What shall our next goals be? If we set our goals for 1970 as high school completion for 75-80 percent of Indian high-school-age youth and 40 percent college enrollment for Indian high school graduates, and we achieve those goals Indians for the

first time will be on a par in formal education achievement with the national averages, providing these figures do represent national averages in 1970.

That is not enough, however, to permit Indians to lead the national averages. To lead, our goals should be higher. Personally, I hope by 1970 we can reach the following goals:

1. High school completion for 90 percent of the high-school-age youth
2. College for 50 percent of the high school graduates
3. Vocational and technical education beyond high school for 50 percent of the high school graduates.

Responsibility Defined

Each employee of the Bureau will play an important role in the achievement of these goals. Teachers in the elementary grades must make each day's teaching count toward these objectives. The way English is taught and the results achieved with each student will affect in large measure each student's future educational opportunities. High school teachers share with the elementary teachers a heavy responsibility for developing English competency at a higher level of capability and maintaining an interest in education as well as good grounding in subject matter and study skills. Guidance and dormitory staff carry responsibility along with all teachers for developing good attitudes toward life, good work habits, and citizenship responsibility and social skills. School administrators and superintendents are responsible for the kind of leadership and technical services that will foster education and accelerate its progress. Others in the Bureau organization who are responsible for facilitating services will carry responsibility for keeping the administrative channels free of blocks that can retard the achievement of these educational goals.

Indian parents and leaders will also carry responsibility. Parents who have not had the advantage of education themselves may not understand the relationship of regular

school attendance, parental encouragement and support, and continued education beyond the high school to the achievement of their youth. Education committees and other Indian leaders will share with the Bureau a heavy responsibility for educating Indian parents to their responsibility to meet higher goals by 1970.

At no time in the history of Indian education have we aimed at goals of this magnitude. To reach them will be no easy task. They cannot be reached through the efforts of a few individuals. They will be achieved only through the combined efforts of the Bureau, the Congress, public school officials, and the Indian people. Action cannot be postponed—1970 is only seven years away. **Can we reach these goals?**

Yes. How? By starting right now.

2. CURRICULUM IMPROVEMENTS CANNOT WAIT

THE TECHNOLOGICAL CHANGES rapidly taking place all about us touch the lives of every citizen. No longer can one live in quiet isolation following his own way of life untouched by rockets and moonshots, jet and soon-to-be supersonic travel, and mechanized and electronically controlled devices. No longer can one live undisturbed and unaffected by world events. The failure of a wheat crop in Russia or the overabundance of coffee in Brazil or the building of the Berlin Wall affects our national life and policy, and brings changes that reach us all. In our own country the automation of industry and mining and the mechanization of farming affect not only the miners, farmers, and factory workers but all of us.

One cannot read the daily paper, or the weekly magazines, without finding comments and opinions about unemployment, its causes, and its remedies. The econom-

ists, the journalists, the political leaders at national and local levels, along with the educators, are vocally pointing to the need for a better educated citizenry. Most recently, J. K. Galbraith, the noted economist and educator, pointed out the correlation between poverty, ignorance, and unemployment, and proposed that an all-out attack on poverty be made through education. The recent legislation enacted by the Congress in support of education attests to the general concern that educational opportunities for American citizens be improved.

The Nation has also expressed in many ways its concern over the high rate of school dropouts. Many programs have been set in motion to stem the dropout tide. Last year special effort was made in some sections of the country to get youth back in school. In some instances these youth went back to the same classes that frustrated and bored them to the point of intolerance for school in the first place, and as a result dropped out again. This leaves us with the question: Who was at fault for a repeated dropout performance?

We ourselves have been concerned with keeping our own students in school through the high school so that they will be adequately prepared for education and training beyond the high school in order that they will have the basic education necessary for any retraining they will need in their adult life to keep pace with employment demands. Our dropout rate has been slightly reduced, but not enough to reach the goals we have set for achievement by 1970. This school year we, too, have had a number of former students who had dropped out of school return to school, and we, too, have had some of these returnees again drop out. Again, the question is: Why? Who was at fault? Were the students frustrated by a school program that did not meet their needs? Were they unable to adjust to the school routine? Were they unable to adjust socially?

Old answers generally pointed toward

cultural nonacceptance of formal education, but today Indian groups are emphatically voicing the need for more education.

Perhaps it is time to scrutinize more closely ourselves and our programs, and to define more clearly for ourselves the urgent needs of the youth who come to us. A recent survey* points out that 18.51 percent of our enrollment are youth who formerly were enrolled in schools other than Federal schools. This group apparently found school life intolerable, else they would have continued their education in their former schools. Shouldn't we ask ourselves what we can do to help these youth gain a feeling of satisfaction and a sense of achievement? No doubt what is required for them is something beyond the ordinary, otherwise they wouldn't be with us. What can we do beyond the ordinary? What can we do to transform frustration into satisfactory adjustment? What is that something that makes a school program exciting and intriguing and makes students want to stay in school? Is it now present in our program? If not, can it be provided gradually?

Shouldn't we look to our program? A teenager in junior or senior high school who can't read beyond the level of a fifth- or sixth-grader is going to do everything he can to conceal his difficulty, but until he and his teachers recognize his deficiency and together plan a course of action to remedy it, he will continue to be a school failure. The school that tries to cover up the student's reading deficiency by giving him work that ignores the need to remedy his basic reading weakness really does the youth a disservice because he is never made to face his difficulty. He can be lulled into a false sense of achievement, but he will be rudely awakened when he tries to get employment. The school that fills the student's time with school work that doesn't give him an opportunity to use and become proficient in the English language also does the youth a disservice.

* 1964

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The Bureau has during the past few years taken steps to accelerate the educational preparation of Indian youth. Included in these steps have been (a) emphasis on improving teacher selection and orientation, (b) improvement in supervision and inservice training to improve the quality of teaching, (c) emphasis on development of English capability in all of its phases, (d) summer programs to expand the social and educational experiences of Indian youth, (e) adult education for parents to strengthen parental understanding and support of youths' educational needs and problems, (f) adjustment of vocational instruction to prepare for further training in trades and technical work after high school, and (g) increased financial assistance for higher education. (There is now available from all sources slightly over \$2,300,000 for college scholarships specifically for Indians.)

In November the school administrators from the different Areas met to discuss the problems involved in further adjustments of the vocational instruction in Bureau schools. The purpose of these discussions was not to deny Indian youth instruction of a vocational nature, but to make the instruction preparatory and to expose more youth to this type of preparation. Therefore, there will be more instruction that is basic to preparation for vocations, and thus instructions will reach more students, not less. The changes that will be made in instruction in the vocational departments of the schools will be threefold—purpose, content, and emphasis. The **purpose** will be to equip each youth educationally for further preparation after high school, rather than to prepare him for placement immediately following high school. This, in turn, requires a re-examination of **content** to make it broader rather than highly specialized. The **emphasis** will be to acquaint Indian youth with

career possibilities in today's world.

This indicates that the vocational departments should place greater emphasis on exploratory instruction and less emphasis on terminal skill development. The adjusted program needs to be supported by a strengthened occupational guidance program. The change in purpose, content, and emphasis, and the extensions of the preparatory program to all students in the school will not result in lessening the responsibility of the vocational departments in our schools. It will increase their responsibility.

On December 19, the Department of Labor issued its sixth edition of the **Occupational Outlook Handbook**. This handbook should become a basic guide for all instructors in vocational departments as well as an everyday tool for all guidance personnel, and a textbook for all high school students to help them determine their future career goals.

This handbook gives information concerning employment trends, and predicts job opportunities of the future. It indicates that prospects are the highest for teachers, nurses, economists, counselors, computer programmers, biologists, accountants, engineers, and technical writers; prospects are good for social workers, traffic managers, industrial designers, marketing researchers, barbers, stenographers, insurance and real estate salesmen, repairmen, and maintenance workers. The prospects are poor in mining, manufacturing, and farming.

These projections tell us much that must be considered if we are to keep our school programs geared to the opportunities for satisfactory employment. To keep programs in gear with trends, adjustments are necessary. If we fail to keep abreast with trends, we surely will fail in reaching our 1970 goals. In that we must not fail.

3. BIA CURRICULUM GUIDE FOR OVERAGE HIGH SCHOOL YOUTH

In an earlier article our 1970 goals were outlined. Although these goals, at this point, may seem high, their achievement is necessary if Indian youth of this generation are to be sufficiently prepared to meet the employment requirements of their era. All schools have academically retarded youth. Their retardation should not be used as rationale for nonachievement of the goals we have set for ourselves. Their retardation is our challenge to meet the individual needs of each student.

A group, primarily concerned with the education of overage Navajo youth, has worked at two summer workshops on the development of curriculum guides to meet the needs of overage youth, to give them the help needed to complete high school. Its work, as summarized in this article, has application in every high school program in the Bureau.

You will note that the program pattern shows job placement at the end of high school by means of a broken line. (See p. 281) This is to keep before us that, as rapidly as possible, we must get students prepared to move to education or training beyond the high school. Unless we do, we will graduate youth with the false impression that they are well prepared for today's world, when in fact they are not. The President's Committee on Youth Employment in its report* to the President points up the need for more than a high school education. Therefore, the broken line in our program pattern indicates an interim measure for fewer and fewer youth.

Each Bureau school will receive several copies of the first draft of **Steps to Learning**. It should be studied and used. Your recommendations will be valuable in the develop-

ment of a revised document that will speed us toward our 1970 goals. Your use of the material will cause you to analyze your own teaching; and with self-analysis comes improvement. The following article is the introduction that will accompany the experimental curriculum material the schools will receive.

HISTORICAL REVIEW OF STEPS TO LEARNING

This curriculum guide is for the use of teachers working with overage, academically retarded students in grades 7 through 12.

Steps to Learning is an outcome of the Bureau of Indian Affairs school administrators' effort to develop curriculum guides to meet the changing composition of today's Indian school enrollment. For this material to be of maximum value to you as teachers, it is necessary that each user of this guide recognize the need that caused this effort to be made, and to know to some degree how this guide has developed.

For many years, the Special Navajo Program functioned as an interim school opportunity geared toward providing several thousand overage, non-English-speaking Navajo children with a minimum of formal schooling and with some mastery of basic vocational skills. These children had little or no prior school experiences. It was a 5-year program during which—

1. Academic skills were stressed for the first three years.
2. Vocational skills were stressed for the last two years.
3. Social skills were stressed throughout each of the five years of the program.

The goal of the program was placement for all graduates in jobs, with followup provided by the school to assist in their adjustment on-the-job. A series of goals was originally developed and enlarged through the years as the nucleus of knowledge encompassing those skills, attitudes, and understandings considered minimal for success on the job.

* **The Challenges of Jobless Youth.** The President's Committee on Youth Employment, W. Willard Wirtz, Chairman, Department of Labor, Washington, D.C., 1963

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In the ungraded structure of this program, a few students made rapid gains and were transferred into other programs permitting high school graduation and occasionally the completion of college. The majority functioned within the framework of the program designed to accelerate their progress toward employment. The story of this unique educational experiment and of its unqualified success is well documented in **Doorway Toward the Light** written by L. Madison Coombs, 1962.

In succeeding years as the ages of the enrolling students began to drop, it was possible to offer them six, and age permitting, eight years of school experiences before placement at age eighteen. Each school, to meet more adequately the changing needs in these programs, adapted and modified by adding new goals to the initial 5-year goals.

In 1961 at the annual Education Conference in Window Rock for school administrators involved in Navajo education, Mrs. Thompson, Chief of the Branch of Education, issued a challenge to the group: "Keep the door toward high school graduation open for each student. The present goals must be revised and modified to meet the rapidly changing needs of these students." There was a community of interest in this need for a change on the part of the administrators; they felt that the Special Program by name and the minimum essential goals as guides were no longer meeting the needs of today's Indian child. Any lingering doubts of this need to change direction were certainly dispelled when the Education Committee of the Navajo Tribe presented a resolution to the group asking for high school opportunities for all Navajo children in Bureau schools.

On the surface, a formal or traditional high school curriculum appeared to be the possible solution. Students were now entering school two or three years younger; they were more verbal, more sophisticated, and they now had several years of educational experiences behind them before entering

off-reservation schools. Paradoxically, there were other factors adversely affecting, to varying degrees, the progress of today's student that had not been prevalent in the earlier years of the Special Program. Students were less highly motivated and were less able to achieve academically, many more students were facing severe emotional problems, and often they posed a sophistication based on experiences undesirable or incompatible with life in a school setting. Thus, it became apparent that Bureau schools could not meet the needs of students so identified, solely by offering a traditional-graded high school program.

The Steering Committee

A committee composed of all off-reservation boarding school superintendents, Area Directors of Schools concerned in Navajo education, Navajo Agency personnel, including tribal education committee representatives, and the Field Technical staff met at the Intermountain School in January of 1962 for the following purpose:

1. To develop plans and guidelines that will permit involvement of staff in goal revision
2. To recommend procedures to assure coordination of reservation and off-reservation programs
3. To recommend methods to challenge students and staff to their best efforts
4. To decide upon a more appropriate name to replace the name "Special Program." It was agreed that the program would (a) be geared to the needs of the students, (b) be flexible to adjust to the needs as they change, and (c) keep the doors open for each student to progress as rapidly as he is able and to his maximum.

At the meeting in January, the student population was carefully analyzed to determine where emphasis needed to be placed. It was agreed that the different schools involved had moved in varied directions to develop programs to meet more adequately the needs of the changing student popula-

tion. It became apparent that the greatest need in the Bureau was for help in curriculum guides for the large bulk of the students several years academically retarded. Abundant material, activities, and course of study existed for the minority functioning at age-grade levels. The steering committee agreed that—

1. Every effort should be made to help all children acquire as much schooling as they are able to complete within the time available to them.
2. Procedures and criteria should be established to permit ready transfer of children from one program to the other.
3. Guides should be provided for those severely retarded overage students in grades 7 through 12.
4. All severely retarded students, regardless of tribe, enrolled in the schools represented by this group should be considered eligible for enrollment under either set of the goals prescribed.
5. Attainment of the goals set up would depend upon the following:
 - a. Better teaching
 - b. Training programs for teachers
 - c. Suitable teaching materials in sufficient quantities

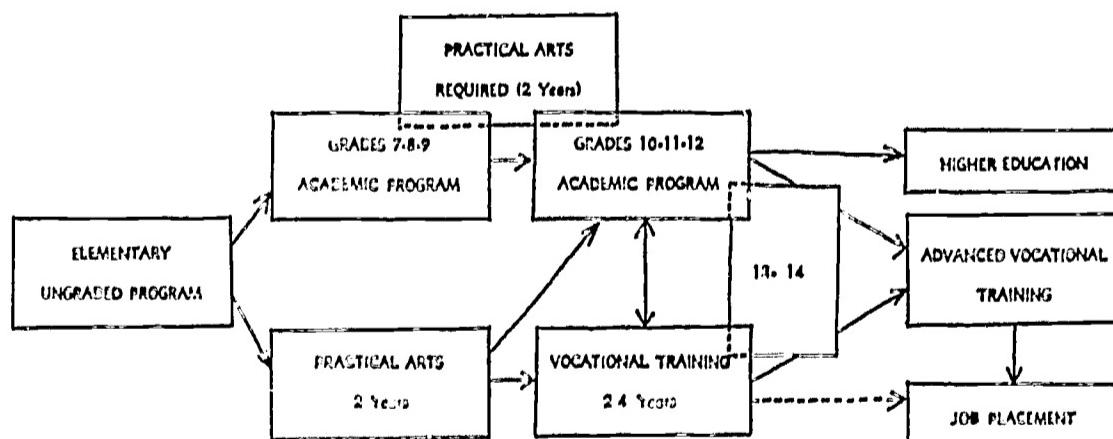
d. Staff orientation.

It was agreed that each school would (a) spend the balance of the year studying how and what was needed to modify the Special Program goals, (b) bring all documented efforts to date to a summer meeting which would be expanded to include representative department heads and some teachers, and (c) conduct an intensified study to identify thoroughly the extent of retardation.

The Chemawa Workshop

Chemawa was the host school for the 1962 session. The stated purpose was "to consolidate the standards, goals, and procedures of the several boarding schools with a view to achieving greater uniformity and to upgrade the quality of all schools."

Overall philosophy and major objectives were developed, both for the schools and for the major subject matter fields. A review of the various programs offered pointed up the need for a more simple organizational pattern, if in a uniform application of the philosophy we were to achieve the overall objectives Bureauwide. The accompanying chart was developed.



Agreements reached during the discussions were as follows:

1. The elementary program will be ungraded.
2. The time pupils remain in the elementary program will be dependent upon the level at which they enter, their ages

upon entrance, and the rate at which they attain the goals of the program.

3. Pupils may progress from the elementary ungraded program into the junior high program, the more conventional academic course, or into courses designed for those who are extremely

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- verage and desire earlier termination of their formal schooling.
4. Classes for students in the lower levels of the junior high school program will probably be carried on in self-contained classrooms. The upper levels may or may not be departmentalized, dependent upon local conditions.
 5. The length of time required of students to complete the junior high program will depend upon such variables as age at admittance, teacher evaluation, level of achievement, and rate of progress.
 6. Goals for the elementary ungraded and the two tracks of the junior high school will be worked out.
 7. Two years of practical arts training will be required of all students.
 8. Upon completion of the junior high level, students who have earned two or more high school credits may elect to enter the senior high school program or they may choose the vocational training route.
 9. Those completing the vocational training program may look forward to job placement or advanced vocational training.
 10. Those completing the academic high school program may look forward to job placement, additional vocational training, or higher education.

Some of the key recommendations having relevance to later developments of this guide were—

1. That Bureau boarding schools other than those represented at the Chemawa meeting be invited to join this group in seeking answers to common problems.
2. That the group encourage staff members to undertake studies and action research to find solutions to some of the problems and to implement procedures which research studies have proved to have merit.
3. That entire faculties be involved in establishing goals for their respective schools, and that they record their rec-

ommendations for curriculum revision to be considered at the next meeting of this or a similar group.

4. That all students be encouraged to complete a high school or an equivalent course, and that the age ceiling for graduation be lifted.
5. That the schools provide flexible programs with multi-directional tracks.
6. That those in attendance at the Chemawa Workshop assume responsibility at their respective levels for acquainting their fellow-workers with the goals and accomplishments of the workshop.
7. That those responsible for the educational program in the several schools take steps to implement the recommendations.
8. That it become the long-range goal of this group to study the practicability of an ungraded high school.
9. That the lower levels of the junior high school years be ungraded, semi-departmentalized, or maintained in self-contained classrooms, depending upon size of school, classes, number of teachers available, and other pertinent factors.
10. That all boys and girls be required to take two years of practical arts preferably in the 9th and 10th grades.
11. That additional practical arts courses be allowed as electives in the 11th and 12th grades as staffing and scheduling permit.

It was also agreed to involve a larger number of teachers in a 2-week workshop to run concurrently with the supervisory workshop at Intermountain School in June 1963. Bureauwide representation was requested, because a more careful and studied identification of student composition focused awareness on the fact that retardation similar to the Navajo was prevalent in many Bureau schools. (Public school failures and children in Bureau schools because of family disorganization being two of the more common reasons for this condition.)

The Intermountain Workshop

Again, at the Intermountain session, the efforts of the various schools for the past year were reviewed. Several schools were using the ungraded and highly flexible program proposed at the Chemawa Workshop. As an outgrowth of their efforts, it was agreed that the group would attempt, in its limited time, to break the subject matter fields of language arts, mathematics, social studies, science, and guidance into basic concepts or basic understandings which would cut across all grade levels of learning, listing them in sequential order where pertinent. The activities developed including the outcomes or aims would vary with the needs of a given child depending upon his maturity, achievement ability, and vocational goals in life. The suggested activities would be the "depth variable" in the learning opportunities presented. Thus this approach would enable a seventh grade student achieving on a fourth-grade level to study the same basic understanding that constitutional government is necessary in a democracy by relating his activities to his classroom constitution as it would a senior student in high school studying problems of democracy. References were researched within the manpower and time limitations to give specific help to you as a teacher.

The format of the guide consisting of (a) basic understandings, (b) suggested activities, and (c) resource materials was kept simple, again to get a start in what is hoped you, as a teacher, can help to make a strong force in direction for all new teachers entering the Bureau; also, help for those now employed and struggling with the moot question of what do you teach in each subject.

The spaces left in the guide are for your use. This is a working copy and each school and area office will be asked to complete a summary of each school's suggestions for next summer's revised compilation. Evaluation of all or any part will be needed if the revised and completed document is to meet the teachers' needs of getting a greater

number of students to catch the "spirit of knowledge acquisition"; thereby meeting the challenge of high school completion as a minimum attainment.

While mastery of the subject matter fields is vital to academic success, **Steps to Learning** will have meaning or value only to the degree that it reinforces the teacher's ability to challenge the child to learn.

4. GUIDE FOR ACTION

THIS GUIDE FOR ACTION in Bureau of Indian Affairs high schools is the result of recommendations made by a group of Bureau school administrators at a meeting in Denver in November of 1963. The guide is the culmination of six years of study and evaluation of practical arts and vocational offerings in Bureau high schools. The recommendations reported herein, when put into action, will result in program changes that, in turn, will provide greater emphasis on English language capability, on guidance and counseling, and on practical arts as preparation for further training and education beyond the high school.

Need for Change

The Bureau of Indian Affairs has operated a system of vocational high schools for half a century or more. Job placement upon graduation from high school has been the major objective, and a high percentage of former vocational graduates are successfully employed in government, in business, and in industry.

Technical development is rendering obsolete much of the vocational training of the past. The employment market is increasingly demanding skills on a much higher level, supported by a well-rounded background of general knowledge. As a consequence, the opportunities for employment of high school graduates or those who

do not finish high school are rapidly decreasing, and the pay for unskilled and semiskilled workers is at a much lower level than for skilled, technical, and professional

workers. These trends are vividly pointed out in the 1963 **Occupational Outlook Handbook*** which forecasts job opportunities from 1960 to 1975. Here is the picture:

Opportunities for

	From 1960-1975
Professional and technical people	up 65 percent
Service workers	up 50 percent
Clerks and other office workers	up 45 percent
Salespeople	up 34 percent
Managers and proprietors	up 31 percent
Craftsmen, foremen, and skilled workers	up 29 percent
Machine operators and semiskilled workers	up 17 percent
Laborers, miners, unskilled workers	no change
Farmers and farm workers	down

Bureau school officials, almost a decade ago, recognized that the technical and professional society that was emerging would have its impact on the programs offered in Federal high schools. They recognized that Indian students would need more education and training—not less—to compete for highly skilled, technical, and professional jobs. Curriculum workshops in 1957, 1958, and 1959 developed guidelines for program adjustment. Bureau school officials said at that time: "High school is not enough."

Evaluations have been made annually and certain program changes developed. Consideration has been given to the problems of overage youth, academically retarded students, and to youth from socially and economically deprived homes. In this context it is not too surprising to realize that Bureau of Indian Affairs high schools are not all the same.

At a workshop in June of 1963, goals for 1970 were proposed. These goals for Indian youth are: high school graduation for 90 percent of the high school age youth, college enrollment for 50 percent of the high school graduates, and vocational and technical training after high school for 50 percent of the graduates.

In November of 1963, Bureau school officials outlined the following fundamental changes as necessary next steps toward the

achievement of the 1970 goals:

1. In Junior High School—

Put major emphasis on a basic program which aims at competency in oral communication, reading, writing, and arithmetic. Without mastery of these basic skills at all levels—elementary, junior, and senior high school grades—a student is faced with a future of unemployment and unattained personal goals and satisfaction.

Develop at the ninth-grade level new practical arts courses to replace former exploratory shop programs. These new courses should emphasize a practical knowledge of modern living. The students will become familiar with consumer goods, purchasing, packaging, merchandising, and money management. An effective plan for instructional field trips should be developed to enable students to study the modern processes of today's world firsthand. These courses will have an added benefit in acquainting students with various occupations and in helping them to make wise occupational choices in the senior high school.

Expand the range of learning experiences for students during their out-of-school hours and improve their ability to relate to other people. The experiences provided should give the students the help they need to

* U.S. Department of Labor, Washington, D. C. **Occupational Outlook Handbook**, Bul. No. 1375. 1963-64 edition

overcome their deficiencies and to develop their particular talents in areas where their interests are centered. Hobby clubs of various kinds and other school and dormitory organizations should be encouraged. These activities should be designed to help students understand themselves and their environment.

2. In Senior High School—

Adjust the high school curriculum at the earliest possible date to replace present vocational courses with newly designed practical arts courses. The program should provide the students with preparatory experiences and knowledge leading to vocational and technical training beyond the high school. For those schools which have students who will mature by, on, or before the 12th grade, the practical arts courses will provide the best possible program leading to employment, on-the-job training, or further training after leaving high school. Because of the rapid technical advances of recent years, high school graduates cannot expect employment in skilled, technical, and professional occupations unless they continue their training. Unfortunate overage students who cannot complete high school should be assisted through other programs of adult vocational training so that their skills can be developed for a higher level of employment. Dropouts face only the chance of becoming unskilled or semiskilled workers. The schools should provide an opportunity for dropouts to return to high school and to upgrade their education to the point where they, too, can obtain further training and education necessary for a higher level of employment.

Intensify and expand vocational guidance and counseling services for each Indian high school student. In today's world with its rapid changes and its myriad of occupations, the Indian student should learn to understand himself, his talents, his aptitudes, his abilities, and how he may use these gifts to the greatest advantage for himself and for society. Up-to-date occupa-

tional information must be available to each student, and should be explained by experts in the field in terms that Indian youth understand. A part of this effort should be firsthand observations and study of occupations in industry, agriculture, higher education, technical and scientific fields, marketing, distribution, sales, services, transportation, and in other fields. To do the job effectively will require study of basic occupational publications. The **Occupational Outlook Handbook** should become a basic text in each high school. Specially trained school staff members who have up-to-date knowledge of the occupations and the know-how to present it to the students should be employed at each high school.

Evaluate and classify the practical arts into groups or clusters of related courses. Bureau schools now offer a wide variety of practical arts courses by titles or course names. By developing a standardized grouping of related courses, school administrators can keep the curriculum in better balance. Each school should do the initial evaluation and grouping, and through the guidance of Area and Washington Office representatives of the Branch of Education, a final Bureauwide grouping can be made.

Organize special programs for academically retarded students who, through no fault of their own, need special assistance to catch up with and continue in the regular program. The Special Navajo Program has pointed the way for this type of program, but the students needing special help now are younger for their educational grade levels and they are more sophisticated. They are in need of a challenging program of education where they can improve their English, reading, writing, and speaking, with high school graduation the goal for each student. Their progress may be slow in catching up and in achieving at the desired level; but this they must do or face a dismal future of unemployment. The general curriculum may not meet their needs at all. These students need improved guidance

services, effective remedial courses, and interesting and challenging modern practical arts courses. An intensified effort should be made to involve these overage students in extra curricular activities concerned with a variety of suitable school and community experiences.

Develop comprehensive plans for orienting, training, and retraining of all Bureau of Indian Affairs teachers. Those engaged in the teaching of newly designed practical arts courses, vocational guidance, modern living, English, reading, mathematics, science, and social studies should keep up-to-date with the content and the best techniques of teaching their subjects to Indian students. In some cases, the teacher will need only a short refresher course. In other cases, completely new courses must be undertaken. Retraining of a number of teachers will be necessary to enable them to make the complete transition to the newly designed curriculum, with emphasis on basic education and preparatory experiences leading to further education and training beyond the high school. Most teachers, regardless of their subject matter specialties, will desire and should be encouraged to complete additional graduate courses concerned with understanding of Indian students, behavioral sciences, social sciences, and psychology. Additional study in these fields by most Bureau of Indian Affairs educators will improve the quality of education for Indian youth.

Continue emphasis on inservice training. Inservice training assists teachers to become part of the team and to understand their particular jobs in educating Indian students. Such programs at school, Agency, Area, and Washington Office levels are mandatory to effective program direction. The involvement of other branches, Indian parents, tribal representatives, and outside professional people should be emphasized.

Program Administration

Indian manpower, well-educated and well-trained, is the keystone to the success

of all other Bureau programs. Successful use of resources, industrial development programs, and the development of human resources are inseparable. This makes the task of administration of the Bureau's educational system a vital and challenging one.

The operation of the Federal high school system is under the direction of well-qualified local and area administrators, but any program functions best if administrative and technical assistance personnel work as a team. The 1970 goals cannot be achieved without close team cooperation and full administrative support, at all levels, of the program changes outlined at the Denver conference.

5. WAR ON INDIAN POVERTY

IN HIS STATE OF THE UNION message, President Johnson declared war on poverty in this country. Much is now being said and written concerning the best methods of attack in this newest kind of warfare. Points of view vary. On one aspect of poverty, however, all agree; namely, the kinship between low educational achievement and poverty. With this area of agreement reached, the schools of this country, without question, will occupy a front position when the battle-lines against poverty are drawn. Educators will be called to active duty. Their ingenuity, their leadership, their courage, and their boldness of purpose will undergo the most rigid tests. Can they measure up? Will this newer call to duty prove to be their "finest hour"?

Bureau employees have long been waging war on Indian poverty. Education has opened up good opportunities for countless individual Indians in the professions, the trades, and in the arts. Generally speaking, however, these educated Indians have taken advantage of opportunities wherever they could find them. An imbalance between Indian population and resources has in the

past depressed opportunities on most reservations. The newer developments on some reservations will, no doubt, in time change this situation, but in the past educated Indians have usually had to leave their reservation areas to get the best returns for their newer skills. This has resulted in deep pockets of poverty among those remaining because they are usually the least educated, the least skilled, and the least knowledgeable about today's problems. Much of our work with Indians in the past has given us experience in dealing with poverty. This will be helpful, but we, too, will be called to a newer kind of duty. It will test our ingenuity and our boldness of purpose. The beachhead has been established. Are we ready to take the mainland of Indian poverty? Will this be our "finest hour"?

The Commissioner of Education, the Honorable Francis Keppel, in his address at the Atlantic City meeting of the American Association of School Administrators made poverty education's prime target, and outlined the strategy of battle. We now quote him and point out the application of his statements to our own war on Indian poverty.

"... unemployment grows wherever educational achievement is low . . . income rises wherever educational achievement is high . . . poverty and lack of education are linked."

We have found this true for Indians. The general educational level of Indians on reservations is approximately half that of the national population. Unemployment among Indians ranges from 7 to 10 times greater than the national level of unemployment. The educational achievement of each generation of Indians has exceeded that of the previous generation. The median educational level of adults under 45 is about eighth grade as compared to about fifth grade for the total Indian adult population.* This present school generation will raise the ed-

ucational level of Indian people considerably because there are more Indians in colleges and trade schools than ever before. On the other hand, rapid change in technology is increasingly requiring a higher level of preparation. Too, Indian interest in education has mounted. We have taken many long steps, but the journey's end is not yet in sight.

"An immediate attack through education on some of the problems of poverty . . . will call for assistance to strengthen education among America's poor, to balance the scales of opportunity for children who need the best of education but seldom receive it."

Bureau schools are sometimes incorrectly labeled "segregated" schools by critics who look upon them as schools to separate Indians from the major culture. The mission of Bureau schools is not to separate but to "balance the scales of opportunity" for Indian children from homes where only the native Indian tongue is spoken, and for those from homes where the parents function almost entirely within the boundaries of traditional Indian life. Special programs, special teaching skills, special materials, and special understandings of the Indian child and his way of life are the extra weights that must be used to balance the scales for these Indian children. Until the scales are balanced, the Indians at the poverty level will not be able to function in today's world—they will suffer an economic and social segregation that will be difficult for them to overcome.

"It has become easy to be satisfied with schools which exist in form but not in substance . . . where teachers seem to teach, and children seem to attend . . . forgetting that students are not really learning."

Are Bureau schools guilty? Certain changes that have been made in Bureau school programs appear to increase school holding power. This indicates that school programs must constantly undergo

* 1964 estimate

adjustment to meet effectively the special and changing needs of Indian youth. The article "Guide for Action" sets forth other adjustments believed necessary to increase the substance of educational programs in Bureau schools. This is an area, however, that needs continued and increased attention.

"... it is easy to become satisfied if we can provide a classroom for every student and a teacher for every classroom. . . ."

For the past decade the problem of providing classrooms for Indian children has occupied the major attention of the Bureau simply because of the magnitude of the problem. Too little time and energy have been left to give adequate attention to the improvement of the quality of education. Quality is dependent, first, on the teacher; second, on the tools we put in his hands; and third, on the type of leadership he can expect from us.

From now on these are areas that should receive our greatest attention. Our efforts should be directed toward better teacher selection and additional program adjustments through imaginative leadership.

"We have argued that we cannot teach their children (children of the slums) because they are not interested in education and because their parents have not taught them to be interested."

This is a familiar refrain that one often hears about Indian children, yet to refute it one needs only to look at the records that many Indians coming from educationally impoverished backgrounds have made for themselves. Instead of blaming the child and his background, let's face the truth.

If we are not succeeding, perhaps we have not sufficiently learned the special skills we need to work with Indian children from impoverished backgrounds. Now is the time to learn.

No longer can we say that Indians are uninterested in education. The one spark of hope in many Indian homes is the hope they

have in education. This spark we must fan into a lasting flame.

In summary, Dr. Keppel's methods of attack on the Nation's poverty apply equally to our attack on Indian poverty:

1. Attack poverty through schools of higher standards. The school must make up for the deprivations in the lives of its students.
2. Employ the most skilled teachers: teachers trained and gifted in teaching children; teachers with warmth and insight.
3. Enroll the children in the least crowded classrooms, not the most crowded.
4. Provide children with imaginative curriculums.
5. Use instructional materials and textbooks written around Indian life, not around urban middle-class life of which they know little.
6. Reach out beyond the school for the help to be found in other disciplines. The combined strength of all social programs is far greater than the strength of any one program.

6. POVERTY CAN BE CONQUERED

THE PRESS in recent weeks has devoted much space to conditions of poverty in this country, pointing out the social consequences if nothing is done to better the situation. The President has directed the thinking of the Nation toward finding ways to help those at the poverty level to break through the situation in which they are caught.

There is a high correlation between poverty and lack of education. In the United States it is estimated that one person in five is below the poverty line. In 1960, 22.2 percent of the population 25 years and older had less than 8 years of schooling. The conclusion is clear. With Indians 25 years and older, the situation is much worse. However, there are bright spots on the Indian scene.

The younger adults of the Indian population are reaching a much higher level of educational achievement than did their parents. This is the beginning of a breakthrough. This momentum should not be lost. Credit for this beginning goes to many: to the Congress for its attention to funds for education, including funds for higher education; to the Bureau and the States for giving increased attention to the educational needs of Indians; to teachers, many of whom devote their energies far beyond the call of duty to teaching Indian youth. All of these have contributed much to the advancing achievement of this generation.

These efforts, nevertheless, would not have achieved as much as they have without the participation of the Indian people, especially Indian leaders urging Indian youth to greater achievement.

Most tribes now have education committees that work hard to develop greater educational opportunities for their youth, as well as to encourage them to take advantage of other available opportunities. Indian tribes contribute \$800,000 of the \$2,300,000 now available for college grants.* Some groups provide clothing, books, fees, and other such items for needy children. Others contribute time and energies to counsel youth, to follow up on school attendance, and to return dropouts to school. This is evidence of the growing importance of education in Indian thinking. All of this will accrue educational dividends that will be payable in the next decade, providing the schooling offered prepares youth adequately for life in a changing world—a world that is demanding increasingly deeper understandings and better skills.

Merely sitting in a classroom will not assure an education. The schooling that is offered must make sense to the participants. This requires programs tailored to students—not students tailored to programs.

* 1964

Thousands of children sit in American classrooms exposed to an educational program that makes little sense to them. At the first legal opportunity many of them leave; and today when they leave before they finish high school, their chances for a life of poverty, with all of its consequences, far exceed their chances of success.

The Indian children enrolled in Federal schools are, for the most part, children from impoverished homes. Many of those enrolled in public school are also from similar homes. An educational program that reflects only the culture and mores of a more affluent group may not make sense to these Indian children. The program that reaches them needs special tailoring, and they need teachers who understand them and their culture. This is not to imply that the educational program for them should be a watered-down or an inferior program. Rather, it should be accelerated in quality, with special teachers, special counselors, special materials, special equipment, and smaller classes.

Bureau experience with special educational programs has proven that efforts in tailored education to meet special needs can help individuals break the bonds of poverty. The staff of Sherman Institute located 82 of their 1951 graduates of a special educational program. (See **Doorway Toward the Light.***) These students, on the average, had only 5 years of schooling beginning when they were 12 to 16 years of age. Their program was specially tailored to make them literate in English and to give them a salable skill. The graduation class numbered 101; and of the 82 Sherman was able to locate, only 3 were unemployed. Most of the group were in service-type jobs such as cooks, bakers, busdrivers, and maintenance-men, but they were supporting themselves and their families at a level certainly above the poverty line. The rate of unemployment

* Coombs, L. Madison. **Doorway Toward the Light.** U.S. Bureau of Indian Affairs, Haskell Institute, Lawrence, Kansas. 1962

in the group that was located was less than the national rate of unemployment. With five years in a program tailored to their needs, these individuals have freed themselves from the cycle of poverty.

Today, 5 years of schooling is not enough; but 12 years of schooling will not be enough either unless it is tailored to fit the needs of youth from impoverished neighborhoods.

7. SOMEONE TO TALK TO

WE ARE PRONE TO BOAST of our sophistication and our college degrees but which one of us, in describing the educational needs of Indian children, ever spoke more profoundly than the Indian man who said, "Indian school children need someone to talk to"?

These are not superficial words. They carry deep meaning for all of us who work with Indian people. As we explore to their depths the meanings of these simple words, what are some of the things they say?

To us, the words of this Indian say: The overt actions of our children may mislead you. Their thought processes differ from yours because they are based on cultural experiences different from yours. The culture of the school, your culture, is difficult for our children to comprehend fully. They are not completely at home in it. They will approach their world at school from the only frame of reference they know, from our own Indian life. If different approaches are called for, you must help them understand what they are, and how they differ from those familiar to them. To give them this help, you yourself will have to know as much as you can possibly learn about our frame of reference, our Indian way of life.

These words "our children need someone to talk too" also say to us: You try desperately to teach our children your language so that they can talk with you and others, and

so that you can talk with them; but you often stamp out their desire to talk with you. We want our children to learn your language, but we want them to speak their Indian language too. We believe your teaching problems go deeper than language. If you put all of your efforts in the teaching of English and fail at the same time to know our children as personalities in their own right, you will dwarf your effectiveness and damage our children. Like children everywhere, Indian children have a developing inner-self that is precious, that is sensitive, that is individual. Our children can communicate with you only in terms of this inner-self, and they will communicate if they have confidence in you. Your English language teaching to be successful should relate closely to the inner-self of each child in ways that will nurture dignity. When you succeed in doing this, our children will communicate with you with all of the language at their command, and they will strive to learn more of your language to strengthen their communication.

If on the other hand, our children feel that you do not respect their inner-self, if they feel you do not think well of their Indian ways, if you, either intentionally or unintentionally, make them feel inferior, they will hide that inner-self from you in self-protection. They will reject your language. They will use the Indian language as a wall between you and them. They will never really struggle to put forth their best effort to learn the patterns of the English language, that are so very difficult for us, when they suspect that your motive in teaching them English is to strip them of their Indian ways and make them over into your own self-image.

Finally, these words "our children need someone to talk to" tell us: We and our children are culturally different, but we, like you, are proud of our own culture. We have a rich culture (those of us who have survived the culture stripping undertaken through generations by those who have tried

to make us over). We love our music, our art, and we cherish our values. We want you to know and appreciate the finer things in our life, and we want our children to know and appreciate the finer things in your way of life. We hope that you will create a school atmosphere that develops mutual respect so that this interchange will flow freely. If your schools do this, we have no fear for our children. Instead of destruction, the inner-self of each Indian child will be preserved and nurtured. From the deep roots in Indian life will emerge a personality that will burst out in new growth—a growth characteristically its own, yet drawing its strength from two cultures.

In this merging process, a difficult and often a lonely process, our children desperately need someone to talk to. We can talk to them about Indian life, but they need you to talk to them when they have problems at school. And they have many. We know because they tell us so.

If we heed the words of this Indian gentleman, we will find in them important clues to a successful English language program.

8. USE OF OUT-OF-CLASS HOURS IN THE BOARDING SCHOOL

In a previous article, "Guide for Action" summarized the recommendations of the Area Directors of Schools and the School Superintendents at their November 1963 meeting in Denver. One of their principal recommendations concerned the out-of-class hours for boarding school students. In a second meeting in Washington in February, the Area Directors of Schools listed in priority the actions that should next be taken to strengthen the educational program in Bureau schools. They agreed that first priority should be given to the dormitory program. An examination of the total school program will highlight the reasons

behind their thinking. Students in boarding schools spend twice the number of hours out of class during their waking hours than they spend in classroom instruction. Therefore, unless each school's out-of-class program contributes its fullest share to the education of Indian children, it will not fulfill its mission.

By comparison with dormitories, classrooms are better prepared to serve their purpose. The classroom staff is usually better prepared by training and previous experience to meet its obligations to children. Classrooms in our schools, as compared to our dormitories, as a rule, are better equipped and supplied to carry on their function. The student ratio per teacher in classrooms is about half the student load carried by the dormitory staff. On an average, throughout the Bureau boarding school system each dormitory employee on his tour of duty is responsible for 50 students. Making sure that they are safe, that they are clean, and that they are there occupies most of his energy and attention. There is little time to devote to their education and development.

Indian leaders in one Area in a recent meeting pointed out that Indian students needed someone in the dormitories to talk with them and to listen to them. How true are these words—yet how much time can an employee with 50 children care for give to any one child?

There is an undeniable need to reduce the student load for employees who work with children in after-class hours, but the staff added to reduce this load should be persons who bring variety and new strength to these hours.

Elementary children need someone to tell them stories; someone to help them with songs, dramatics, dances, and art; someone to develop their interest in a variety of hobbies; someone to help them with their oral English; someone to help them with their homework and their reading; and someone to listen to their problems. This

calls for additional dormitory staff trained in teaching, in library work, and in recreation as well as guidance.

High school students need this same kind of help in out-of-class hours, except at a more sophisticated level.

Dormitories, like classrooms, need to be well-equipped and supplied with the instructional tools employees and students need to carry on their work. Every dormitory wing should contain bookshelves of paperback books to entice and to interest the students in leisure reading. Every study room should be equipped with dictionaries, encyclopedias, and other ready reference books. Every living room should be equipped with a radio, a television set if reception is available, and books and newspapers. Every recreation room should be equipped with a record player and games. Music and art should be a part of dormitory life.

The Commissioner of Education, Francis Keppel, in his statements concerning attacks on poverty has stated that the school must compensate for the deficiencies in the background of children coming from impoverished homes and communities. He points out, further, that to make up for those lacks, the school should be of the highest standard. This certainly holds true for Indian children.

The total school, not just the classrooms, must supply Indian children with the extras to compensate for lack of books, lack of the ordinary comforts of living, and lack of learning experiences in their home community.

Out-of-class hours in Bureau boarding schools can and should contribute to the development of English language capability "Someone to talk to" in the dormitory will do much to stimulate the learning of English. Tape recorders and other types of playback machines for English practice will contribute much to the learning of English. Listening booths where students, on their own, can listen to recorded English lessons are needed.

The Bureau's summer workshop in June will deal with the problems of dormitory living. Top staff in the guidance departments of Bureau of Indian Affairs schools will attend. The session will attempt to demonstrate how the dormitory can best contribute to the total education of Indian children, and the additional staff needed to do so.

9. NUTRITION AND LEARNING ARE RELATED

WE ARE MAKING AN ALL-OUT EFFORT to advance the educational level of Indian people. This effort in Bureau of Indian Affairs schools calls for attention on many fronts. It calls for attention to well-planned programs that will capture the interest of students; special attention to students who are potential dropouts; attention to the quality of teaching and guidance; attention to good libraries and visual aids centers; attention to music and art; attention to wholesome recreational and physical fitness programs; and attention to the health and nutrition of students.

Health and nutrition are closely interrelated. Children who are not properly nourished cannot learn at an optimum level. An undernourished child is vulnerable to disease. Since many school children, especially children in our schools, come from low income families, the possibility of malnutrition is considerable. This makes it especially important to give careful attention to nutrition in Bureau schools. For this reason kitchens and dining rooms in Bureau schools must serve as learning laboratories in our educational program and should, therefore, be considered instructional units of the schools. The kitchen and dining room staffs are closely related to the teaching function.

Inevitably, the meals that are served will develop food habits which are likely to become the pattern for a lifetime. Well bal-

anced, nutritional meals which expose students to a variety of foods should have a positive carry-over in food habits and tastes in later life. When the daily meals are well prepared and attractively served, students are likely in later life to imitate the food standards they have been exposed to and enjoyed while in school. Cooks, therefore, have a specific responsibility in the education of the children. They are teachers too. They teach children through (a) the care and attention they give to preparing meals, (b) the inviting appearance of the meals they serve, and (c) the standards of cleanliness they maintain in the kitchens and dining rooms. They set examples for the children every day.

Most schools follow approved standard menus which assure nutritionally balanced meals. Most cooks have opportunities for inservice training to improve their skills in preparing and serving meals; and opportunities to receive such training should be developed for all the cooks who do not now have such opportunities.

Generally speaking, we believe children are getting well-prepared, nutritious meals. We believe, however, that there is one phase of the nutritional program which should receive more careful attention in our schools. Children eat too hurriedly, and our scheduling system often encourages them to do so. Children naturally are interested in play and other activities more exciting to them than taking time to eat their meals. If left unguided, they will gulp down their food to get on with their other interests. Kitchen and dining room staffs, also, are pressured to keep the serving lines moving and to get meals over so that the kitchen and dining room can be put in order for the next meal.

This hustle and bustle coupled with the noise, some of which cannot be avoided, produce an atmosphere that is far removed from relaxation. These conditions give little opportunity to develop table manners and may even be detrimental to student health.

It is true that in the newer schools a sep-

arate instructional dining room for smaller groups does give some opportunity to develop table manners and to eat a meal in a relaxed atmosphere. However, due to the numbers who must rotate through the instructional dining room, the opportunity offered each child is extremely limited. If he eats in a relaxed atmosphere once each month and gulps his food on the other days of the month, most of the teaching of the one day is lost by the poor habits practiced on the other days. Each child should spend at least 15 minutes at his meals, exclusive of time in the cafeteria line. This standard is well supported by health and nutritional authorities. Getting this standard established in all of our schools should be one of our goals. Careful attention to organization of dining room service will be necessary to achieve this goal. Instruction and close supervision will be needed to change long-practiced habits. In some schools it will be necessary to stagger classes, and it may be necessary to adjust employee schedules, but this problem certainly deserves strict attention.

This discourse is intended to alert supervisory personnel (both line and technical), guidance staffs, and kitchen and dining room staffs to look critically at their feeding operations. Time the children to see how far your operation is from the achievement of this goal. Is your feeding operation two or three times speedier than it should be? If it is, the providing of sufficient time for eating and the achievement of a more relaxed atmosphere at meals should become goals which involve all staff members and the student body. It will take teaching effort on the part of the entire staff to bring about this change in tempo. It can and should be done.

10. HOMEMAKING: THEN-NOW-TOMORROW

THE HOMEMAKERS of tomorrow's dynamic, accelerated world with all its scientific wonders are the students we are

EDUCATION FOR CROSS-CULTURAL ENRICHMENT

training in today's homemaking classes—and what a particularly select group they are! Theirs is the world of the space age, a world overflowing with every magnificent gadgetry and abundance the scientific mind can conceive and deliver *a la carte* by jet in pleasing form and color to delight the eye and the taste of the consumer.

Homemaking—what a gentle, easy, secure image the word itself brings to mind. Homemaking—a science, a skill, an art as old as time; yet as new as tomorrow's spaceship. The evolution of the role of the homemaker, as a vital part in the drama of the changing world, is contained in the history of the universe.

The homemaker of today's space age still holds forth as one of the most essential beings in society; she has held this status, virtually unchallenged, since the beginning of civilization. She has fashioned her garments, and those of her family, from what was available from plants, feathers, and skins; from hair, silk, and fur; from wool, linen, and cotton; from rayon and other synthetics.

She has served her family meals roasted and boiled over the open fire; bread from grain she helped cultivate, baked in a crude oven she probably helped make. She has served food from cans. Now she serves quick frozen foods from the deepfreeze, and she cooks in minutes, with an electronic range, a meal which only yesterday would have taken hours to prepare. She now also feeds her family better and keeps it healthier.

She has gathered herbs and prepared potions to ease her primitive family's pains, or called upon a medicine man to assist her sick. She fared better with the help of the family doctor, working under his direction to keep her family well; she now has the advantage of preventative medicine, excellent hospital care, specialized doctors, highly advanced, scientific medical and surgical marvels, and health insurance to help cover costs. Still, as a homemaker, she guards the

health of her family on a full-time basis with balanced meals, vaccines, and hygienic surroundings and practices.

Trading was a means of getting all the family's needs which it could not provide for itself, but which could be traded for by exchanging something the family could provide. Now the homemaker is becoming more and more the family marketer; she investigates the market to insure the greatest value for her dollar spent; she is often the family bookkeeper, budgeting and keeping account of the finances, paying the bills, etc., and is consulted when large, long-term obligations are incurred, or when investments are made. She has emerged from an inconspicuous spot in the management scheme of the family to take her place in the highly competitive financial market. As a woman alone, she has advanced to the lead in many financial fields.

She has cleaned by the most primitive methods, to the most modern. She has decorated her home from whatever was at hand that struck her fancy to present day trained, planned perfection which is a delight to her family and friends. Down through the ages the homemaker has met many challenges. The changes in family living and the difficult problems facing family life today cannot be solved by tradition; the problems cannot be solved by turning on switches, pulling strings, or pushing buttons. The task can be done, however, by preparing the future homemakers in our schools for the all-important career of homemaking and parenthood.

The career of homemaking is a combination of many related careers. The modern homemaker must have developed skills in bookkeeping, interior decorating, practical nursing, dietetics, sewing, and in housekeeping; she also must be a skilled hostess and business manager.

The future homemakers enrolled in boarding schools today are the homemakers of our Nation in the very near future. We, the home economists, owe these students

much. They must be guided toward worthwhile home experiences and taught the basic skills that are necessary to establish a happy and healthful home for a future generation. The values that these young students place on a desirable home will have a profound impact on our society. It cannot be over-emphasized that this service should be a part of every future homemaker's education.

In planning our programs in this area of learning, we need to consider the important changes in family living that affect our offerings. Some of the changes which should be considered are as follows:

1. Early marriages. It was estimated that in 1960, 37 percent of all girls over 18 years old were married.
2. Today there are more than 12 million women working outside the home, either full time or part time, to supplement the family income. In order to do both with a reasonable degree of success, they must be well-trained.
3. More training is needed to make intelligent choices of goods and services on the market. The intricacies and versatilities of these goods and services are increasing daily.
4. As more women work outside the home, the role of the husband is changing. Some men may be reluctant to admit this fact; however, it is essential that the young men in high schools today acquire an appreciation of the problems confronting modern homemakers.
5. Families today are on the move in this country. We are a transient Nation. These living conditions add to the problems of these families.
6. Loans and installment buying affect family life today. Future homemakers must learn to avoid impulse buying, yet learn to judge when long-term installment buying is beneficial.
7. The world is shrinking in size—our farthest neighbor by "jet" is only 24 hours away. All families of the world are

our neighbors.

8. The divorce rate is astronomical. Finances, early marriages by immature couples, and other reasons too numerous to mention, but which are prevalent in our society today, all affect the success of harmonious family life.

We could enumerate many more changes having a direct or indirect impact on our society, but all of those mentioned vitally affect our offerings in the field of home economics today. Courses with emphasis only on the skills of cooking and sewing are not meeting the challenge. The needs in our society today place major emphasis on family relations, child development, management, consumer buying, and on textiles. With all the changes affecting our family living today, there are some things that will never change: the need for love and affection; the need for security, good health, and a satisfying religion.

Exploring better ways of teaching home living is not a new experience for leaders in the field. Adjusting programs to meet needs and new demands has been the chief topic of meetings, workshops, conferences, and committees for years. This is a pattern in education. All professions are exploring better ways to meet the rapidly changing conditions of modern society. But, what do we really believe about homemaking education?

1. Are we reluctant to give up traditional courses to make room for the new?
2. Are we satisfied to let our program be continually interrupted by other activities of the students?
3. Are we making our unique contribution to the education of students for desirable family leadership and for citizenship responsibility?
4. Have we honestly evaluated our program in recent years?

To answer the above questions, we must ask: Where are we? What are our strengths? What are our weaknesses? Where do we go from here?

It is hoped that a thorough preparation for facing these challenges will result in a contribution worthy of our profession and help to make a better world for our space age young people to enjoy, so they may face the world and truthfully say, "Everything is A-OK."

11. THE ADULT EDUCATION PROGRAM IN 1963

ADULT EDUCATION in the United States and throughout the world is conducted in many different ways by all kinds of organizations and institutions. Usually the activities which are sponsored by these various agencies are educational or have as their purpose educational goals. In most instances, however, an organization's aim is to assist a particular group of adults such as workers, voters, illiterates, consumers, homemakers, avocationalists, the aged, or the retired, whose members have a specific interest. Thus, because of all the organizations, adults, and activities involved, it is difficult to delineate the total program of adult education. As one person so succinctly put it recently: "Adult education as a program means many different things to many different people."

Adult education in the Bureau also has developed similarly, not because of directives but because of the different educational desires of the participating Indian people. To say that this program is one of literacy instruction or of community action or of correspondence study tells only a part of the total story. The program does not consist simply of one activity directed toward one specific interest group. It involves a combination of many kinds of learning situations, community projects, and methods of instruction; and it serves adults who represent a wide range of educational attainment, of self-sufficiency, and of needs. There are many kinds of settings wherein learning can

take place. Some are informal while others are well planned and follow a formal pattern. Adult educators must select carefully the learning situations which best fit the interests and need of the people with whom they work.

We believe that the Bureau of Indian Affairs program should be defined in terms of its purpose. It is directed toward helping Indian people, either individually or in groups, to acquire the necessary understandings, attitudes, and skills which will enable them to function adequately in today's world. While this is the ultimate goal of the program, the immediate or specific educational objectives of the individuals or groups participating will vary, and of course, can only be determined locally.

At the outset it was recognized and accepted that the program activities at each teaching location would need to be designed to meet the interests and the needs of the adults. In the few cases where teaching units have not been successful, it seems obvious that the program failed to meet the interests or the needs of the people. Fortunately such cases, in proportion to the total number of teaching units, have been small.

In both the initiation and continuation of a program unit, it is essential for the adult educator and the supervisor to know well the adults whom the program proposes to serve. A first and continuing step will be for them to seek ways which will best help or motivate the people to identify their needs or new found interests. When this is accomplished effectively—and only then—the planned program which follows will have both meaning and value to the people.

The role of the adult educator is best described as a teacher who may function both in and outside of the classroom. In addition, he may need to be an organizer who assists community groups to organize for self-help action. Often, he may serve in a liaison capacity between the adults in the community and various resource services available. He should be an active member of the superin-

tendent's community development team. In many situations he cannot escape being a part-time guidance officer.

The actual learning activities in the adult education program seem to fall naturally into one of two categories: first, are the activities conducted in a formal setting with long-range goals; second, are those which are conducted in an informal setting and with immediate terminal goals. The following examples from program operations are cited to illustrate the range of these activities:

Formal Setting

1. Individual and group instruction in the basic tool subjects of speaking, reading, and writing of English, and in arithmetic
2. Home learning or supervised study of general subjects including family budget, diet, good grooming, installment buying, taxes, driver education, fire prevention, home sanitation, etc.
3. Correspondence study program
4. The study of many specific high school subjects including typing, accounting, business English, public speaking, history, and government
5. The general educational development program leading toward a high school equivalency certificate.

Informal Setting

Activities in this category relate to the life concerns of Indian people in the general areas of health and safety, education of their children, home and family life, civic responsibility and participation, social understandings, making a living, and money management. A partial list of the activities includes the following:

1. Conducting community or small group meetings on a variety of subjects
2. Assisting community groups to organize for self-study and project action
3. Serving as a resource person to the education committee of the tribal council
4. Acting as a liaison between adult interest groups and such resources as the Public Health Service, Public Housing

Administration, Social Security Administration, Internal Revenue Service, Employment Office (both Bureau and State), and other Bureau branches

5. Developing joint projects aimed at improving the understanding between Indians and non-Indians
6. Supporting community school activities
7. Counseling young adults
8. Sponsoring short informational projects.

These are but a few of the kinds of activities which may be included in the program. They range, vertically, from teaching the adult who wants to learn how to speak English to the one who is interested in studying an advanced college subject. Horizontally, the program branches out into the life concerns of Indian people who are confronted with the daily problems of being parents, workers, and citizens. In essence, the adult education program can be both specifically narrow or generally broad, depending entirely on the desires and needs of the people served.

12. SUMMER PROGRAMS REACH TOWARD 1970 GOALS

IT HAS BEEN EXTREMELY GRATIFYING to note the increasing numbers of Indian youth taking advantage of higher education opportunities in recent years. To some Bureau employees these youth represent the realization of a lifetime's work. To others, they are an inspiration to still greater effort on behalf of Indian children. And greater effort is needed. Mrs. Hildegard Thompson, Chief, Branch of Education, has stated that she hopes for a 50 percent college enrollment of Indian high school graduates by 1970. (See p. 276.) This is a monumental challenge that will take concerted effort on the part of Bureau employees, Indian parents and leaders, and other interested people.

How can we meet the challenge? Here is one way. We can devote some of our time during the summer months to helping Indian students to increase their English language capabilities and their proficiency in mathematics and science; and to develop sound study habits and a deeper appreciation for cultural activities. Recent studies on Indian youth in college have documented the needs of Indian students in these areas. John Artichoker and Neil Palmer in their study "The Sioux Indian Goes to College" had this to say: "When asked in what ways the high school could help make their adjustment to college life more satisfactory, the following suggestions were made: provide more academic preparation, particularly in mathematics and science; provide examples and experiences in differences between high school and college in the ways in which class is conducted and examinations given."^{*} Additional evidence is available. Dr. Robert Roessel and his colleagues in the study "Higher Education of Southwestern Indians With Reference to Success or Failure" stress the importance of environmental influences in education.^{**} Cultural, socioeconomic, and even educational factors make it imperative that special instruction in English be provided for the majority of Indians for success in college. As the Bureau's summer programs gained momentum, it soon became apparent that the summer months are an ideal time to help college-oriented students master the skills necessary for successful college careers. Early in the 1962-63 school year plans were made to establish a program for these students on a pilot basis. Haskell Institute was chosen as the site. Communication skills mathematics, general science, chemistry, and typing comprised the curriculum. Teachers were recruited from schools throughout the Bu-

reau. Finally everything was in readiness.

On June 10, 1963, 77 students embarked on an educational venture as they enrolled for the 6-week session. Every Area of the Bureau was represented except Alaska. Classes were small, and the teachers were able to assist students individually with their particular needs. The students went about their work with a seriousness of purpose that was impressive. They devoted their full energies to their studies. The teachers did not spare the work. In addition to the classroom work which was demanding, the students were given homework assignments. These assignments not only increased the student's written expression capabilities but also called for the use of research skills and the wise use of study time. Many came back to the school at night to complete assignments, use the library, or finish an experiment in the laboratory. The teachers gave generously of their time as they also came back at night to assist the students with their problems. What did the students think of this demanding routine? Many said: "If this is the way it's going to be in college, then give it to us." They were being reasonably accommodated. Teacher-evaluators indicated that most students did quite well, but there is need for continued emphasis on the solid subjects, mathematics and English in particular.

"All work and no play" was not the case for the students. A well-planned recreational program provided leisure-time activities for the group. There were trips to the University of Kansas and to Kansas City, Missouri, for cultural enrichment activities.

How did the administrators of the program feel about it? This quote from their published report gives a clue: "We feel the summer program at Haskell was a success and should be continued as a necessary service to the Indian students who are interested in education beyond the high school."

Planning has begun for this summer's program. Enrollment will be closed at 200 students for the 1964 session. Who can at-

* Artichoker, John, Jr. and Palmer, Neil M. *The Sioux Indian Goes to College*. Institute of Indian Studies, South Dakota State University, Vermillion, South Dakota. 1959

** Roessel, Robert and others. *Higher Education of Southwestern Indians With Reference to Success and Failure*. Cooperative Research Project No. 938, Arizona State University, Tempe, Arizona. 1962

tend? How do they apply? Academically talented students who have completed the 10th grade and are college bound or who expect to go into training beyond the high school requiring academic strength may enroll in the program. Only students meeting these requirements will be accepted. Students may apply on the regular Form 5-192 through their schools, or they may be recommended by officials of Bureau or public schools they have attended.

Teachers and school administrators perhaps have a large share of the responsibility for meeting this goal by 1970. School administrators must constantly evaluate their programs for maximum holding power. We can't get students in college if they drop out of high school. Some academically talented students will possess the incentive to go on to higher education; others will need counseling and guidance to help them make this important decision. We must be concerned also with the student who is not classified as academically talented though he has the potential for higher education. These students offer a special challenge. Teachers must set reasonable standards and insist that they be met. Students needing motivation must be motivated. Those needing encouragement must be encouraged. If everyone concerned works as a team, who is willing to say we cannot reach our goal.

with opportunities to meet the parents in a home setting and to acquire firsthand knowledge of the economic and cultural backgrounds of the students who attend Phoenix Indian School.

By means of these home visits, the parents are afforded opportunities to become acquainted with the staff, and gain information on the curriculum, programs, policies, and problems of the school. Often, misunderstandings on the part of the parents are corrected, or unfounded apprehensions are dispelled. A spirit of mutual co-operation in the education of the child or children from the homes visited usually results.

The purpose for the home visitations during the first two summers was of a "get acquainted" and "become informed" nature. For the June 1962 programs, more specific objectives were established. The program entailed an employment and social followup on the graduates of the Phoenix Indian School for the 10-year period 1952-1961, inclusive. The survey sampled 628 of the graduates over the 10-year period. Much valuable information, as indicated below, was gathered for use by the school in curriculum planning, and guidance and placement activities.

Number contacted	70.3%
Living on reservation	47.8%
Living off reservation	52.2%
Employed (Married female graduates considered in this category)	84.8%
Employed in vocations in which trained or one closely related	53.0%
Number married	50.0%
Number who attended school after graduation	26.2%

The primary goal of the 1963 visitation program was a home visit with parents or guardians of all 1963-64 seniors. The training or employment objectives of the students were discussed and many of the necessary forms, previously handled with difficulty by mail during the school term,

13. A SUMMER HOME VISITATION PROGRAM

THE RESERVATION HOME VISITATION program of the Phoenix Indian School was instituted some four years ago. Volunteer personnel are used during the summers, usually during the month of June, when demands for their services at the school are less pressing.

Experience has proved that many beneficial results are obtained from these home visitations. They provide school employees

were completed at that time. Eleven volunteers from the academic, home economics, and guidance departments participated. Three reconditioned Ford pickup trucks, one G.S.A. vehicle, and a private automobile were used for transportation. Dates and areas visited were as follows:

Dates	Areas
June 9-15	Papago, Pima, San Carlos Apache, and Whiteriver Apache Reservations
June 9-15	Hopi and Keams Canyon areas
June 9-29	Navajo Reservation

All of the men who participated camped out all or most of the time while in the field. The women used commercial food and rooming accommodations.

Parents or guardians were present in 132 of the 179 homes selected for visitation. No attempt was made to visit some homes because of their extreme isolation or the great distances involved. The percentage of visitation success was considered to be quite high considering the nomadic characteristics of Navajo families during the summer months.

In all, Phoenix educators traveled a total of 10,628 miles. In a few instances, more than one of the 1964 seniors live in the same home. Some return calls were necessary in order to find the people at home.

Educators or teams of visitors were provided with the names of dropout students residing in the areas they were scheduled to visit. Calls were made to many of these homes, the problems discussed, and encouragement given to the dropout students to return to school in the 1963-64 school year.

It is also part of the program to give a complete report of the home visits to staff members of the school at a special meeting so that all will have an opportunity to share in the results of the summer visitation program.

In evaluating the program, it is felt that the reservation home visitation plan conducted by the Phoenix Indian School has re-

sulted in improved communication; and improved communication means improved education for its student body.

14. A DIGEST OF INFORMATION ON THE EDUCATION OF INDIANS

INDIANS OF THE UNITED STATES have received their formal schooling from three major sources: (a) mission schools, (b) Federal schools, and (c) public schools.

Church groups operated most of the schools until the late 1800's. The Federal Government operated most of the schools from 1890 to the 1930's, and now the public schools educate more Indians than both the Federal schools and the church schools combined. The acceptance of the idea of separation of church and State in the late 1800's marked the turning point from predominantly church-operated Indian schools to federally operated Indian schools. The Citizenship Act of 1924 was the turning point from predominantly Federal school operation to predominantly public school operation which exists today.

The central purpose of Indian education from the beginning to the present has remained constant; namely, to educate Indians for participation in American life. On the other hand, policies with respect to the best ways to prepare Indians for participation in American life have vacillated considerably from such extremes as removal of Indian children to boarding schools for long periods of time, to counteract home influences, to the present-day policy of educating Indian children within the home environment, wherever possible, to maintain home ties.

Special Attention Is Still Needed for Many Indians

On the basis of their citizenship, Indians today are entitled to educational services on the same basis and from the same sources as other residents of their respective States.

However, unusual circumstances and severe disadvantages of some Indian groups require special attention to give them equal advantages with others in a normal public school setting. The Bureau's educational function is directly related to the special attention necessary to give Indians educational opportunities commensurate with the demands of 20th-century living.

The Bureau carries out its educational function in two ways: (a) by providing direct educational services where necessary and (b) by financial aid to States when financing is the primary obstacle preventing a State or a local school district from providing adequate education for its Indian citizens.

The process of preparing Indians to receive their education in public schools and of helping States to assume their responsibilities for the education of Indians has been ongoing for approximately half a century. The process will continue until all Indians are prepared to receive their education in public schools, and all States are prepared and ready to assume their responsibilities for the education of their Indian citizens.

Status of Indian Education Today

Currently, twice as many Indian children attend public schools as attend federally operated schools. The following States have assumed full responsibility for the education of their Indian children without any financial help from the Bureau: California, Michigan, Oregon, and Texas. Indian children residing in Colorado, Idaho, Minnesota, Nebraska, Utah, Washington, Wisconsin, and Wyoming also attend public schools but the Bureau provides some financial aid, as each situation warrants, to assist these States in meeting their obligations to Indian children.

In the 1962-63 school year, the Bureau operated 284 schools, including 20 special dormitory operations, in 17 States for approximately 47,500 Indian school children. In addition, the Bureau provided grants for higher education, operated adult education programs, and provided, in cooperation with

tribes and others, special summer program activities.

Indian populations, 25 years and older, which are the direct concern of the Bureau, are approximately half as well educated as the general population. This condition stems from many factors such as past indifference of Indians toward education, past deficiencies in meeting the needs of Indians, cultural differences, language differences, and instructional programs which failed to make sense to Indians. The educational level for younger Indians is rising. For example, the adults under 45 have achieved an educational level of the eighth grade.

Indians today are trying to catch up educationally, and the Bureau's effort is directed toward accelerating the educational level of Indian people. The Bureau staff has established goals to be reached by 1970 as follows:

1. High school completion for 90 percent of the high-school-age youth
2. College for 50 percent of the high school graduates
3. Vocational and technical education beyond high school for 50 percent of the high school graduates.

Federal Elementary Schools

Instructional programs in Federal elementary schools are designed to meet the special English language needs of Indian children in addition to teaching the usual skill subjects in elementary grades. The majority of these children come from the homes of full-bloods where the Indian language is the only or primary language of communication. Emphasis on English language skills continues throughout their school years.

Federal High Schools

Federal high school programs also are designed to meet the special educational and language needs of Indian students. The programs have gradually shifted from the former emphasis on terminal vocational training at the high school level to prevocational programs leading to more advanced

technical, vocational, and professional training at the post high school level. Pre-vocational training, including a wide range of activities in the practical arts such as home economics, business education, and industrial arts, is required as a part of the regular high school course. Even though the program must necessarily be geared to the needs of Indian students, all Federal Indian high schools meet the accreditation standards of the States in which they are located. Six of the 27 high schools also meet the regional accreditation standards.

Special Programs

Special accelerated, ungraded programs, telescoped into five, six, or eight years, are offered for overage Indian students who lacked adequate educational opportunities in their earlier years. These special programs enroll approximately six thousand students in nine schools. Special teaching guides have been developed and are currently undergoing revision. A complete report of the program, which has been published under the title **Doorway Toward the Light**, is available from Haskell Institute, Lawrence, Kansas.

Post High Schools

Post high school vocational and technical courses are offered at three Federal schools: commercial work and business practices and a variety of trades at Haskell Institute, cosmetology and heavy equipment operation at Chilocco Indian School, and vocational courses related to the arts at the Institute of American Indian Arts.

Indian Participation

Indians are encouraged to participate in the development of educational programs, and increasingly they are accepting this responsibility. At two servicewide workshops, key Indian leaders collaborated with key school administrators in setting educational goals and developing educational programs. Indian tribal officials on most reservations take an active interest in educational matters such as school construction needs, educational policies, and special

needs of Indian youth. Some Indians serve as elected members of school boards and participate in school and youth organizations. Tribes contribute funds and services in a variety of ways: they provide college scholarships, carry out youth work programs, operate summer camps and recreational programs, provide eyeglasses for school children, and conduct youth conferences.

Higher Education

In addition to Bureau grants for higher education, there are other aids available from tribal grants and loan funds and from church and fraternal organizations. More than three thousand Indians were enrolled in colleges and universities in the 1962-63 school year. The average Federal grant was \$590. The average grant is being increased in 1964 to see if the college dropout rate can thereby be reduced. The dropout rate during 1963 was 19.6 percent. The total funds from all sources available specifically for Indian college students now exceeds \$2,300,000.

Adult Education

In 1955 the Bureau initiated on a pilot basis an adult literacy program in five Indian communities. The program, which has since expanded both in scope and number of communities served, is now operated in 140 Indian communities.*

Summer Programs

Summer program activities, which in 1960 involved approximately 2,000 children were expanded by 1963 to serve 20,447 children. The programs, which are varied in terms of local interests and resources, include kindergarten, elementary, and high school instruction, work programs for teenagers and college-bound students, recreational and camping activities, and trips to urban centers to provide new experiences for rural children.

Special Experimental School

The Concho Demonstration School with a capacity of 44 students, established in

* In 1964

September 1962, enrolls school dropouts or potential dropouts. Intensive study is made of the problems of each student. A special staff working as a team provides diagnostic services, remedial instruction, and special guidance services to assist each student to overcome his particular difficulties so that he may be prepared to adjust satisfactorily either to his former school or to another school program better suited to his particular needs. Seventy-eight students—some with a combination of severe educational and social problems—were served by the school during the course of the first year. Of this number, 12 students left Concho. Although 66 students with acute needs were adequately served, further appraisal will be made each year to determine what further steps are needed to strengthen this program, so that more students can be salvaged, and so that data can be developed that will be helpful to all Bureau schools.

The Institute of American Indian Arts

The Institute of American Indian Arts, Santa Fe, New Mexico, with an ultimate capacity for 500 students was established in 1961. It is for Indian students who are interested in art-related vocations. Students may enroll in the 10th, 11th, and 12th grades in high school and in post high school courses. Indian high school graduates from other Bureau schools and from non-Bureau schools may enroll in the 2-year post high school department.

Guidance of students is an essential part of both the high school and the post high school programs so that each student may have the very best opportunity to reach his full potential.

Guides Provided to the Field

The Bureau provides assistance to the field in various ways. One way is to develop, with the help of field personnel, guidelines in the form of staffing patterns for different types of schools, standards for operating dormitories, and curriculum guides for the various educational programs. Policy statements are developed to help field per-

sonnel conduct the Bureau's business. The periodical, **Indian Education**, is published to keep Education employees up-to-date on policies, programs, and teaching techniques.

Publications Program

The Bureau provides training in the printing trade at three schools. Student printers practice on materials which the Bureau develops to meet the special instructional needs of Indian youth and adults. Curriculum guides, special instructional materials developed around Indian life, special teaching guides, educational reports, and pamphlets are printed by Indian student printers. This periodical published semi-monthly during the school term reaches each Education employee in the Bureau. Although these materials are published for Bureau use and to give student printers actual on-the-job practice, many are made available to the public.

Summary

Bureau educational programs are aimed at bridging an educational gap to prepare Indians for successful living in the 20th century. Perhaps the greatest problem facing undereducated Indians is how to hurdle the gap in time without sacrificing their emotional equilibrium; and the greatest challenge facing the Bureau is how to help Indians in ways that will assure continued pride in their Indian heritage, self-respect, and confidence in their ability to function in this technological age.

15. INDIAN EDUCATION: THEN AND NOW*

THE PURPOSE OF THIS ARTICLE is to give a resume of the program adjustments that have been made in vocational education programs in Bureau schools during the 1950's, and to outline the current direction vocational programs are taking.

* 1964

EDUCATION FOR CROSS-CULTURAL ENRICHMENT

Vocational programs for Indians started with the Indian industrial school established during the early half of the 19th century. The purpose of these programs was to teach Indians to read and to work. In fact, early records stated the objective as one of placing in the hands of Indians "the primer and the hoe."

Most of the Bureau schools in the 1800's and early 1900's carried on extensive farming operations. Girls were taught butter-making, soap-making, sewing, and cooking, all of which were homemaking skills appropriate for that day and age. The boys were taught harness-making, blacksmithing, and farming. The classroom instruction and the farmwork were rotated on a half-day basis. Since most of the Indian students in the early days were in their teens or early adulthood when they entered school, the half day of work produced crops and food in sufficient measure to finance a large part of the school's operation.

This resume is not to criticize these early operations. While this method of education may have been the most feasible one for its time, it would inevitably require adjustments to meet the demands of a progressive society. But, change comes slowly. Both individuals and institutions are prone to preserve the status quo regardless of changed conditions.

The half-day work continued under the guise of on-the-job vocational training long after it should have been abandoned. Because of limited operational budgets, school officials charged with the financial management of these institutions sometimes were interested in half-day vocational instruction to maintain the farms, dairies, laundries, and kitchens. If the actual educational needs of the students had been studied, these same officials would have realized that instruction, not production, should have been the objective. As late as 1943 (issue No. 87) and 1945 (issue No. 118), **Indian Education** dealt with instruction versus production. This indicated that,

in relation to changing needs, school operations needed critical appraisal, and much was done in the late 1940's in this direction.

Early in the 1950's, an overall appraisal was again made of school operations. School lands, dairy herds, beef herds, laundries, and bakeries were appraised for their instructional values, and reduced or eliminated to bring school programs in line with instructional needs, as versus production needs. A report by two Branch of Education employees, P. W. Danielson and Edgar Wight, outlined the changes that were needed, especially with reference to land and stock.

In the late 1940's and early 1950's, the employment market was still quite favorable for placement of high school graduates with limited or single skills. However, even at that time mechanization and automation were making rapid inroads on this type of employment. Vending machines and other automatic equipment on farms, in factories, and in stores eliminated in the fifties countless sales, assembly lines, and farm jobs. On the other hand, these changes have created new jobs, but jobs which demand a higher level of skills. Generally speaking, well-established vocational programs have not reflected changes as rapidly as the employment conditions have indicated they should. As a result, much of the vocational training now offered throughout the Nation is obsolete or fast becoming so. Like schools everywhere, Bureau schools are faced with keeping in gear with the needs of a rapidly changing employment picture. The general pattern of the vocational program is described in **Indian Education** No. 322.

In the 1962-63 school year, the ninth grade was eliminated from Haskell Institute. In 1963-64 the tenth grade will be eliminated, and the two remaining high school grades will be eliminated as rapidly as space and facilities elsewhere for its students will permit, thereby making Haskell a post high school institution. This is in keeping with the objective of postponing

GOALS FOR THE FUTURE

vocational skill training to post high school years. In addition to Haskell, post high school training is offered in certain trades at the Chilocco Indian School and in art-related vocations at the Institute of American Indian Arts. Post high school nurse aid training and dental technician training are provided by the Division of Indian Health, Public Health Service. The resources of the adult vocational training program authorized by Public Law 595 are available also to high school graduates for post high school training. However, merely adding two post high school vocational training years to the curriculum will not serve the purpose, unless corresponding changes are made in the high school curriculum. Keeping, in reality, the same vocational courses at the high school level by merely changing their names to "practical arts" and then adding two more years of the same vocational training after high school will be a waste of student time and an unnecessary expense. Serious thought must be given to program readjustment at the high school level. Practical arts classes must become truly preparatory. The amount of time devoted to practical arts must be adjusted downward, with greater emphasis and time devoted to English, reading, mathematics, science, history, and to civics at the high school level. This type of high school instruction is truly preparatory, regardless of the career objectives of students. The students whose career goals are in the vocational, technical, business, and sales fields are in need of this type of academic preparation. A carefully planned program that meshes practical arts and academic offerings will be needed to hold the interest of the non-verbally oriented students. However, greater emphasis on career planning, as well as greater emphasis on reading and English programs, is needed at the high school level. Time blocks formerly used at the high school level for terminal skill training should now be used for these newer emphases. Certain schools which have moved in this direction are finding

that holding power can be maintained without intensive vocational high school courses occupying a lion's share of the high school time.

Students are finding that they can increase their power in the tool subjects when opportunities for special instruction are provided in their high school program to permit them to acquire these skills. The satisfaction they gain in increased power in the tool subjects is sufficiently challenging to them to hold them in school; and they are in greater numbers looking to education beyond the high school.

The lead article in a previous issue of **Indian Education** suggested these goals for 1970:

1. High school completion for 90 percent of the high-school-age youth
2. College for 50 percent of the high school graduates
3. Vocational and technical education beyond high school for 50 percent of the high school graduates.

How can each school meet these goals?

1. Improve guidance services, which should begin with the elementary grades and carry through the high school; emphasize vocational guidance throughout the high school.
2. Improve techniques in teaching English in all grades, with a larger share of the high school time devoted to English and reading and study skills.
3. Require courses at the high school level in practical arts, with offerings at each level preparatory to the next; postpone vocational training to post high school years.
4. Make a thorough study of the type of post high school courses to be offered, and where each should be offered.
5. Improve placement and followup service in all schools.
6. Conduct a series of inservice training sessions to reorient the thinking of BIA officials and Indian leaders with respect to employment and training.

7. Plan a series of curriculum workshops to lay out new content and curriculum offerings in high school.
8. Coordinate budget planning, school facilities, and school management practices to upgrade educational achievement.

16. FLEXIBILITY*

MANY EDUCATORS are currently attempting to incorporate flexibility of educational thinking and practice into their schools. A brief glance at recent issues of educational journals reveals that flexibility is being given a verbal sluicing in the trough of educational literature. With this in mind, it is interesting to trace innovations in Indian schools over the past years which indicate that the 1936 plea for flexibility in Indian education was followed and is still considered an important facet of Bureau educational programs.

Demand for Flexibility

Prior to the Meriam Report of 1928,** Indian Service schools were unpretentious in their inflexibility. Their aim was to remold the Indian child into a person non-Indian. The realities of their programs were rooted in an educational philosophy which considered the needs of the Indian child unimportant. The Meriam Report called for a change in this inflexibility and asked that educational programs be structured along lines of thought which give consideration to the Indian student's background. This report highlighted the fact that the educational program then in effect in the public schools, and in most Indian schools, was largely ineffective in Indian schools because

it was designed for individuals with English-speaking backgrounds and of a literate heritage. Basic changes were called for, and educational leaders in the Indian Service understood that flexibility of philosophy and action must be the essential ingredient in a new recipe for the operation of Indian schools. The need for flexibility was spelled out:

It is not a question of making the pupil fit a predetermined school program. There is no such thing in the Indian Service. Your duty is to develop a program which fits the child and his needs.***

Quest for Flexibility—Pine Ridge

One of the first major changes effected in Indian education as a result of this quest for flexibility was a move to redesign curriculum. Indian students needed to study under a curriculum structured to cope with their individual abilities and their Indian heritage. One step in this direction was the work done with the Pine Ridge Sioux.****

The Pine Ridge Sioux Program was developed in the latter part of the 1930's and early part of the 1940's to help young Indians of this reservation acquire ideas and skills which would assist them in attaining a better life on their reservation after leaving the school. The major innovation of this program was not the specifics concerning what was taught, but that it was an honest and concerted effort to develop a more effective type of educational program for Indian boys and girls. The educational history of the Pine Ridge Reservation was reviewed; lifetime occupational patterns of the tribal members were investigated; the dropout rate was considered; and, in general, much fruitful information was carefully gleaned and allowed to give direction to the development of the program. The findings of this preliminary investigation indicated that the schools should try new approaches, content

* The title for this article is not unique and first appeared in *Indian Education* No. 5, 1936, as the title of an editorial written by Dr. Willard W. Beatty, then Chief, Branch of Education.

** Meriam, Lewis, and others. *The Problem of Indian Administration*. Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins Press, 1928.

*** Ibid, p. 3.

**** Dale, George A., *Education for Better Living*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Bureau of Indian Affairs, 1955.

and methods, particularly in the area of vocational agriculture; and an effort was made to direct the attention of the total membership of the reservation toward this one program for improvement, the focal point being the schools and their curriculum.

It should be mentioned that the flexibility of this program was not of the type which characterized other later educational programs within the Bureau. The Pine Ridge Program was an important step in the direction of flexibility because it represented a first step in practice in breaking away from the rigidity of the educational programs which had traditionally characterized the schools of the Bureau. The Pine Ridge Program broke the shackles of rigid educational thinking and made possible the development of other different kinds of educational programs which maintained this same basic flexibility of thought.

Quest for Flexibility—Special Navajo Program

One of the other programs of the Bureau which had a strong element of flexibility was the Special Navajo Program* which was put into operation in the school year 1946-47.**

This program facilitated a greater correlation between the curriculum and individual student ability. The Special Navajo Program was organized to meet a special need, that of the education of overage students who had little or no formal schooling and who wanted a chance to acquire an education. The goal of the Special Navajo Program was to assist the student in acquiring basic language, vocational and cultural skills, and knowledge which would equip him to assume the responsibilities of citizenship either on or off the reservation. Therefore, the focal point of the program was the individual student and his particu-

lar needs. The element of flexibility in this program is interesting and, as will be seen, had some forward-looking practices in its basic operational scheme.

In the first place, when students entered the program they were tested and placed in the program according to their ability and achievement level. Those who could progress at a more rapid pace than others were allowed to do so. The school structure was ungraded, and the age of the student was not the deciding factor in his placement in the program. The student's desire to learn, his motivation, and his intellectual maturity were the important factors in the minds of those who worked with the students. As a result, those students who wanted to and could move ahead rapidly were allowed to do so and were eventually promoted from the special program into the regular program.

(An ironic feature of the program was that in the ungraded structure of the special program the student was allowed to, and in many cases did, progress in school at a rapid and unusual pace. Yet, when this happened the student was taken from the ungraded flexibility of the special program, the essence of which made his unusual progress possible, and placed in the regular program which was graded.)

Also, the student's educational development was viewed within a five-year block of time and subdivided into levels, not grades, and according to the goals.

A team approach to the coordination of the educational activities for students was used. This meant that one teacher, either an academic or vocational teacher, was the coordinator of activities for a group of students. This, in practice, represents what is currently known as team teaching for it included regular coordinating conferences among academic, vocational, and dormitory personnel.

Quest for Flexibility—Minimum Essential Goals

Now, for the mention of another element

* Coombs, L. Madison, *Doorway Toward the Light*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Bureau of Indian Affairs, 1962.

** Thompson, Hildegard, "Report of the Navajo Experiment at Sherman Institute, 1946-47." Window Rock, Arizona: U.S. Bureau of Indian Affairs, August 20, 1947.

of flexibility in Indian education which was developed concurrently with the Special Navajo Program. This element was the Minimum Essential Goals which were a series of guides published by the Bureau outlining an essential core of knowledge and skills which each student attending the Bureau schools should acquire.* The goals were intended to permeate the entire curriculum, and to teach the basic language and cultural knowledge considered peculiar to the needs of children in Bureau schools. The goals were not a complete curriculum, but were intended to supplement and complement the curriculum which each school was to develop or adopt, according to regional needs and requirements.

The flexible nature of the Minimum Essential Goals is apparent in that they are outlined according to "levels." The introductory statements accompanying the goals express the concept that children have different individual learning abilities and different levels of maturity. Flexibility is called for regarding the placement of children and the interpretation of the goals. The prefaces for Beginners through Level Three and for Level Twelve state this concept:

Teachers in smaller schools are accustomed to handling children in groups, according to levels of achievement. . . . One child may advance much more rapidly in English learnings than in arithmetic, and is entitled to participate with the group which has reached his level of achievement in each separate subject. . . . **

Placement. (These goals do not necessarily have to be taught at the level designated.)***

It is significant that the term "levels" was chosen in place of grades and that with specific regard to placement, ability and achievement are the recommended evaluative criteria.

* U.S. Bureau of Indian Affairs, Washington, D.C. **Minimum Essential Goals for Indian Schools**, B-12. 1953.

** U.S. Bureau of Indian Affairs, op. cit., B-3, p. 5.

*** Ibid, Level 12, p. 1.

Current Quest for Flexibility

Starting in January of 1962 at Window Rock, Arizona, and continuing through the summer of 1963,**** there have been a series of meetings involving Bureau administrators and teachers who have been deliberating the revision of the Minimum Essential Goals and the basic structure of Bureau school programs in an attempt to make recommended changes in keeping with the development and current needs of Indian people.

Central among the many issues discussed at these meetings was the need to have varied and flexible educational programs which would take into consideration individual and group differences among Indian students. At the first meeting in 1962, multidirectional tracks were discussed. In the 1962 summer workshop, agreements reached included the recommendation for an ungraded elementary program in Bureau schools.

One of the constant challenges of Indian education has been the teaching of students who are academically retarded, for the majority of those enrolled in Bureau schools falls into this category. One of the major concerns of the above-mentioned meetings was to find ways and means of educating students who are overage and underachievers. To meet this challenge, the participants constantly emphasized the need for flexibility. In recommending an ungraded elementary school, it might be said they brought up-to-date the elements of flexibility which have been evolving and developing for close to three decades in Bureau schools. The frank agreement for an ungraded elementary program was in keeping with precedent and progress in Indian education.

In addition to the ungraded elementary program, concern was expressed for the students who formerly were placed in the special program, but who now represent dif-

**** Workshop Reports: "An Educational Program is Updated," **Indian Education** Issue 377, September 15, 1962. "Historical Review of Steps to Learning," **Indian Education** Issue 393, October 15, 1963.

ferent problems and needs. They are the overage, usually teenage, students who are academically retarded and require a formal education commensurate with their background and maturity. The special program with its flexibility was designed to meet the former needs of these students and to accelerate their educational development. Now that the students currently enrolled have different educational achievements and needs, greater modification is needed to meet their new educational demands than the individual schools have been able to bring about in the past few years. The students are still overage and retarded but their educational requirements reflect new and different challenges, the participants in these workshops felt.

The participants in these meetings discussed the problem of the integration of the regular and special program students on the secondary level. To meet this challenge the 1962 workshop recommended that the long-range goal of Bureau schools be to study the practicability of a nongraded high school. In consideration of this recommendation, a few thoughts about the nongraded high school are offered, keeping in mind educational flexibility, its history in the Bureau over the past three decades, and its future application in Indian schools.

What are the implications of the non-graded program for Bureau high schools? In the flexibility of the nongraded high school, the academically retarded Indian student and the gifted Indian student would both receive curriculum materials commensurate with their abilities. Neither would set the pace for the other.

The schools operated by the Bureau are the principal culture-carrying agents for the non-Indian culture. The school is the place where the Indian student makes his most intimate contact with the essence of the non-Indian culture. Hence, the Bureau schools should strive to represent the spirit

and essence of the non-Indian culture by teaching the nature of freedom of thought as it developed in the Western world. The graded structure, by its lockstep nature and demands for conformity, does not give the Indian a feeling for or understanding of the mode of thought which has shaped Western society.

Indian students come to the Bureau schools from folk cultures that are close to nature and are personal in outlook. They come with open minds and hearts and want to learn new things; especially do they wish to learn about non-Indian lifeways. In brief, they come to our schools with curious minds unjaded by the demands of a modern mechanistic, impersonal society. Our job, as teachers and administrators, is to capitalize on their natural curiosity and lead them to discover and understand this society. They need individual attention and small group instruction to learn effectively the new lifeways. Can we accomplish this in the graded high school with its rigidity? Does the graded system encourage the student to follow his natural curiosity? Can the graded high school honestly throw itself into the task of discovering where the individual student should be placed in all academic phases? Or is it not a matter of a tacit understanding among teachers, counselors, and administrators in the graded high school that there is no need to investigate thoroughly along these lines for fear they would discover needs beyond their resources? Is the graded system, with all its pressures to conformity, a true reflection of our country's ideals and heritage? And above all, can it lead Indian students to discover the joys of intellectual inquiry?

It is to be hoped that leaders and teachers in Bureau schools will keep in mind the past practices of flexibility in Indian education and apply them, with new and proven modifications, to improve further the schools for Indian students.

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